University of Alberta

French Native Speaker Judgements of Errors Made by Anglophones Learning French

by

Anne-Marie Goggin

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of **Master of Art**.

in

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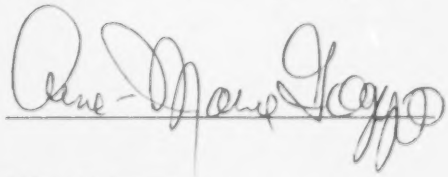

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled **French Native Speaker Judgements of Errors Made by Anglophones Learning French** submitted by **Anne-Marie Goggin** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of **Master of Arts** in **Romance Linguistics.**

Daniel Fearon

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Date: September 30, 1996

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the reactions of French native speakers to errors made by Anglophones learning French. Subjects read and rated erroneous sentences for conmprehensibility and acceptability. The four error types studied were related to verb transitivity. Errors in passive use were most severe, followed by errors in personal pronoun, relative pronoun, and preposition use. Ten sociolinguistic factors were considered. Females and younger subjects were most tolerant; more educated subjects were less tolerant; subjects born in France (others: Quebec, English Canada) were more severe; Montrealers (others: Quebecers, Edmontonians) were more severe; subjects with a better knowledge of English showed less acceptance; subjects with a better knowledge of French grammar were less tolerant; subjects who were teachers were more severe than non-teachers. Two variables were not significant: frequency of contact with Anglophones and degree of empathy towards English culture. Analysis of control sentences provided useful information regarding language processing.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Problem

Second language teaching and learning can be traced back 5,000 years in history. Philosophies and teaching methodologies evolved and fluctuated throughout this time. More specifically, from the 19th century to the present, second language teaching varied in focus, going from a language focus (grammar-translation), to a focus on the learning process (integrated current), back to the language (linguistic current), and then to the learning process and the learner (psychological current). It is only recently that the listener or reader (native speaker of the target language) has been considered part of the process.

The ideal goal for a second language learner is to be able to communicate with speakers of the target language. The question, then, is to determine if communication is prevented if second language learners produce errors in their speech. Communication processes are complex and will be discussed in the following sections. This investigation emphasizes not only causes of errors, but also their effects on native speakers.

The four main questions posed in this study are:

1) What effect do different errors have on the comprehensibility of utterances produced by Anglophones learning French?

2) What effect do different errors have on the acceptability of utterances produced by Anglophones learning French?

3) Is there a correlation between errors' effects on comprehensibility and on acceptability?

4) Is there any difference in native speakers' comprehensibility and acceptability, according to gender, age, level of education, place of origin, place of residence, frequency of contact with Anglophones, knowledge of English, attitude towards English culture, knowledge of French grammar and experience in teaching French.

1.2 Theory on Communication

1.2.1 Linguistic Communication

According to Crystal (1980), human communication is the transmission of information between a source and a receiver, in a context, using a system called language. In theory, communication is successful if the information received is the same as that sent. In practice, the efficiency of the transmission can be affected for linguistic and non-linguistic reasons. Although non-linguistic factors are important to communication, this study focuses on linguistic communication. In sencond language learning, errors produced can be phonological, lexical or grammatical in nature. In this investigation, only grammatical errors are studied. To better understand the nature of these errors, the concepts of competence and performance are examined below.

1.2.2 Competence vs. Performance

Brown (1987), based on Chomsky's theory, defines linguistic competence as the "underlying knowledge of the system of a language - its rules of grammar, its vocabulary, all the pieces of a language and how those pieces fit together. Performance is actual production (speaking, writing) or the comprehension (listening, reading) of linguistic events." In the present investigation, it is not possible to determine if errors are at the competence or perfomance levels because sentences are contrived.

In second language learning and/or teaching, the term interlanguage is used to describe an approximative system different form the first and second languages but having characteristics of both. The sentences of the corpus are examples of interlanguage. Such a system likely hinders communication by affecting comprehensibility and acceptability of utterances.

1.2.3 Comprehensibility vs. Acceptability

Although the terms comprehensibility and acceptability are adopted in this research, there is no concensus among linguists for terminology use. The following is a review of terms used with reference to error judgement.

Delisle (1982), in an evaluation of the seriousness of errors, states that if linguistic correctness (no errors) is the goal, then all errors are equally serious. However, if communicative success is the goal, a hierarchy of errors can be produced. Ultimately, an error is a failure to communicate.

Martin (1978) introduces the concept of "*recevabilité*", whereby an utterance is "receivable" or "acceptable" if it conforms to the rules. He also uses the term "*interprétabilité*", which measures the intelligibility of the meaning (*signifiant*).

For Khalil (1985), irritation is the native speaker's emotional reaction to deviant utterances.

Gynan (1984) finds it difficult to discriminate irritation from acceptability because both are related largely to attitude on the part of the native speaker.

Fayer and Krasinski (1987) describe irritation as having two components: distraction and annoyance. Distraction diverts attention from the message, while annoyance is a negative, subjective reaction to the form.

Lennon (1990) affirms that the idea of correctness is probably based on formal written language and hence may not be appropriate as a measure for speech correctness.

Eluerd (1981) brings a semantic component to error judgement by defining an acceptable sentence as being both grammatical and meaningful.

Jakobovits (1971) uses appropriateness as a synonym for acceptability.

Piazza (1980) uses the term comprehensibility synonymously with intelligibility. The word irritation is used to refer to the degree to which erroneous sentences irritate native speakers, whereas the term tolerance incorporates the notions of comprehensibility and irritation. She suggests that irritation is the possible result of unintelligibility.

Crystal (1980) describes an acceptable utterance as one "whose use would be considered permissible or normal".

Galloway (1980) suggests that for the successful transmission of a message, two elements are inseparable: form (mastery of isolated grammatical elements) and content (message conveyed).

Ludwig (1982) states that "the degree to which the interlocutor understands what is said or written is the measure of comprehensibility". On the other hand, "irritation is the result of the form of the message intruding upon the interlocutor's perception of communication".

Based on the hypothesis that all languages are regular systems ruled by laws, Nique (1975) distinguishes between three categories of judgement: grammaticality, acceptability and correctness. A grammatical sentence strictly obeys the laws of the system. An acceptable sentence is perfectly natural, immediately comprehensible and is neither bizarre nor exotic. A correct sentence is authorized by the norm and not prohibited by any Academy.

In the present study, Ludwig's (1982) definition for comprehensibility and Nique's (1975) definition of acceptability were adopted. Ludwig's (1982) definition for comprehensibility was adopted because the primary goal of a non-native speaker in a linguistic interaction with a native speaker is to be understood. Nique's (1975) definition of acceptability was chosen because of its emphasis on naturalness, which seems to be an important factor in a judgement based on intuition.

1.3 Study of Errors

1.3.1 Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis

Contrastive analysis is often used as a tool in foreign language teaching and translation. Crystal (1980) explains that "in a contrastive analysis of two languages, the points of structural difference are identified, and these are then studied as areas of potential difficulty in foreign language learning". Contrastive analysis is a prediction of errors (direction future) while error analysis is a recording of errors that have been committed (direction past). Crystal (1980) states that "in language teaching and learning, error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the mistakes made by someone learning a foreign language".

The present study is largely based on error analysis. Error analysis can be descriptive or explicative in nature; both of these methods were used in the analysis of results.

1.3.2 Types of Errors

1.3.2.1 Global vs. Local Errors

Errors can be global or local in nature. Delisle (1982), in reference to Burt's (1975) work, explains that global errors are those that "affect overall sentence organization" and severely impede communication, while local errors which are limited to a single part of the sentence rarely affect the communication of a verbal message. She concludes that global errors are generally considered more serious than local errors.

Vann et al. (1984) suggests that global errors are the least acceptable types of errors because they are rarely committed by native speakers. According to Ludwig (1982), "errors that violate a higher level rule or which operate at the sentence or discourse level (global errors) cause greater amounts of irritation than do mistakes affecting single, recurrent elements in a sentence (local errors)". Hammerly (1991) claims that global errors affect comprehensibility while local errors do not. Brown (1987) adds that local errors "because they usually only affect a single element of a sentence, do not prevent a message from being heard; context provides keys to meaning".

1.3.2.2 Transfer, Interference, Overgeneralization and Fossilization

Brown (1987) and Crystal (1980) define transfer as the carry over of previous performance or knowledge to the new language. Transfer can be positive (facilitation) when two languages have

correspondant features, or negative (interference) when the patterns of two languages do not coincide. Overgeneralization refers to the process whereby a learner extends his/her use of a grammatical feature to contexts beyond those in which it is normally used. Brown (1987) describes fossilization as "the relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's second language competence".

1.3.3 Norm and Fuzzy Grammar

Norm is complex because it encompasses two different concepts: mean of frequency and conformity to an absolute rule (Martin, 1978). According to Nique (1975), the norm is set by language institutions, whereas Wardhaugh (1986) defines norm as the decision made by an economically or politically dominant group.

Eluerd (1981) describes normative grammar as a method with which utterances are classified as correct or incorrect and are subsequently rectified. He defines descriptive grammar as a method that describes utterances without correcting them. According to Bell's principle of formality, the respondants in the present study likely used normative grammar in their judgement of interlanguage. On the contrary, the researcher used descriptive grammar to analyze results.

In almost any syntactic or semantic phenomenon, there is a grey zone in which native speakers' judgement of errors is indefinite. This concept is known as fuzzy grammar. In such cases, the norm seems more difficult to identify. The well-formedness is hence viewed as a scale rather than a dichotomy (Martin 1978 and Mohan 1977).

1.4 Research in Native Speaker Reactions

Numerous researchers have investigated the reactions of native speakers to errors made by learners of their language. Because many of these studies are referred to in the chapter on the analysis of results, this section gives an overview of the studies in which the concepts of comprehensibility, acceptability and other important concepts are discussed. No specific error hierarchies are reviewed because of the many variations among studies in language used, procedure applied and aspects of language studied.

In Okamura's (1995) experiment, native speakers evaluated utterances according to six criteria, including appropriateness and comprehensibility. Comprehensibility was considered to be the most important criterion in evaluating the learner's language. (English learning Japanese)

Chastain (1980) found that native speakers considered most errors comprehensible but not acceptable. (English learning Spanish)

Gynan (1984) determined that non-native errors are not salient to native speakers and that teaching should therefore concentrate on communicative aspects of language. (English learning Spanish)

McCretton and Rider (1993) showed that both native and non-native speakers had similar error hierarchies, but that non-native speakers were more severe judges. (Malay learning English)

Rifkin (1995) found grammatical accuracy to be the most important criterion for evaluation. (English learning Russian)

Vann et al. (1984) showed that native speakers saw errors in relative rather than absolute terms. (Foreigners learning English)

Hadden (1991) noted that several factors affect native speakers' perception of interlanguage: comprehensibility, social acceptability, linguistic ability, personality, and body language. (Chinese learning English)

Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) suggested that the assessment of errors must be carried out with reference to effectiveness in communication (i.e.intelligibility). (English learning Greek)

Khalil (1985) claimed that utterances were judged as more intelligible than natural. (Arab learning English)

Politzer (1978) looked at errors in terms of seriousness to establish a hierarchy without discriminating between grammaticality and acceptability. (English learning German)

Delisle (1982) tested subjects' tolerance to certain errors but did not distinguish between comprehension and irritation factors. (English learning German)

Gunterman (1978) found that sentences containing multiple errors were most serious, followed by errors involving substitution, omission, and agreement. (English learning Spanish)

Galloway (1980) showed that native speakers and non-native speakers rated interlanguage differently. Native speakers tended to concentrate on the content while non-native speakers concentrated on the form. (English learning Spanish)

Albrechtsen et al. (1980) found no correlation between correctness and comprehensibility, although the texts which were the most correct were also easy to understand. They claim that irritation is correlated with the number of errors, regardless of error type. (Dutch learning English)

Piazza's (1980) results revealed that more comprehensible errors were generally less irritating and that irritation was judged more severely than lack of comprehensibility. In addition, errors in written form were less irritating than those in spoken form. (English learning French)

Ensz (1982) showed that grammatical errors were less tolerable than errors in vocabulary and pronounciation. (English learning French)

In a study conducted by Fayer and Krasinski (1987), native speakers were more tolerant and less annoyed by interlanguage than were non-native speakers. (Spanish learning English)

Evidently, the conclusions reached in these studies are as varied as the languages used, procedures applied, and error types studied. Nevertheless, two tendencies can be identified: communication is of

greater importance than grammar and native speakers are less severe judges than non-native speakers. Because students learn a language to communicate with native speakers, results pertaining to error judgement by native speakers are of primary importance. Moreover, contact between a student learning the target language and a non-native speaker of the same language is uncommon and unnatural.

1.5 Conceptual Background

1.5.1 Transitivity

Transitivity refers to the verb's relationship to dependent elements of structure. There is no concensus among linguists as to the nature of transitivity. In this study, a transitive verb is a verb that can take a direct object (transitive direct) or an indirect object (transitive indirect). An object introduced by the preposition *à* is an indirect object. An object introduced by another preposition (*de, pour*) is a prepositional object, hence the correspondent verb is intransitive.

An object is associated with the "receiver" or "goal" of an action. Traditionally, a verb is transitive when its action "goes over" to an object. The direct object is more central in clause structure, as indirect objects require a direct object to which to relate (The man gave the boy a book.). Indirect objects usually appear before the direct object in spoken English, which is not the case in French unless the direct object is uncommonly long. Béchade (1986) uses the term "totally transitive" when no preposition appears in the construction and "less transitive" when the verb requires a "light" preposition (*à, de*).

Some verbs, called ditransitive or double transitive, can take two objects (He gave me a pencil). In the present study, these verbs are called dative verbs. They express the notion of indirect object using prepositions or word order (He gave a book to the boy. / He gave the boy a book.).

Some other verbs can be used both in a transitive structure (He eats pizza.) or in an intransitive structure (He eats.). These verbs are not studied in this research.

1.5.2 Types of Structures Pertaining to Transitivity

1.5.2.1 Prepositions

A preposition is a function word normally followed by a noun phrase, which is called the prepositional object. A preposition is an invariable grammatical tool that can be empty (*à, de*) or with a precise meaning (*avant, pour*). As mentionned above, the empty preposition *à* introduces an indirect object, however, *à* in the following sentence has a locative value: *Je vais à Paris*.

The corpus of this investigation comprises errors in prepositional use, more specifically the incorrect addition or omission of prepositions (see section 1.5.2.4.).

No Substitution of preposition is part of the corpus.

1.5.2.2 Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns are anaphoric entities. The term anaphora, according to Crystal (1980), is "the process or result of a linguistic unit referring back to some previously expressed unit or meaning. Anaphoric reference is one way of making the identity between what is being expressed and what has already been expressed". In the analysis of the present study, the author also uses the term antecedent to describe "what has already been expressed" and the term referential distance to describe the number of words or syllables between the antecedent and the anaphora.

In designing erroneous sentences on personal pronoun use, four types of structures were considered: apposition, question-answer, juxtaposition / coordination, and imperative. Each one of these categories represents a different anaphoric relationship.

1.5.2.2.1 Apposition

In an appositive structure, the object of the verb is anteposed and is reiterated with a pronoun. The function of this process is to emphasize the object, which constitutes the theme of the utterance. The detached apposition is isolated by a pause, marked by a comma in the written form and by intonation in the oral form. In this type of structure, the apposed noun phrase is the antecedent of the anaphoric pronoun. This process is frequently heard in familiar spoken register (sentences 63, 67, 59, 9, 74, 13, 46).

1.5.2.2.2 Question-Answer

In this type of structure, the antecedent is in the question and the anaphora is in the answer (sentences 66, 58, 55, 28, 16, 77, 33).

1.5.2.2.3 Juxtaposition / Coordination

Juxtaposed sentences are two sentences that follow each other and that are related by context (sentences 22, 18, 62, 11). Coordinated sentences are composed of two independent clauses joined by the conjunction of coordination *et* (sentences 70, 24). The antecedent appears in the first sentence and the anaphora in the second. Sentence 57 does not follow any of these patterns. The pronoun *lui* is not anaphoric but rather deictic because no actual antecedent is present in the utterance.

1.5.2.2.4 Imperative

The imperative structure is composed of two juxtaposed sentences, where the first sentence contains the antecedent of the anaphoric pronoun which is present in the second sentence (sentences 73, 17, 37, 40, 39, 75, 25).

1.5.2.3 Relative Pronouns

Like personal pronouns, relative pronouns are anaphoras because they have an antecedent in the sentence. But relative pronouns have a connective as well as an anaphoric function. It should also be noted that all relative clauses used in the corpus are centre-embedded, which is more complex to process than extraposed relative clauses in final position, because one clause interrupts the other.

1.5.2.4 Passive

Sentences 45, 78, 20, and 76 are erroneous passive sentences. The verbs used in these sentences are dative verbs. As seen above, dative verbs require a direct and an indirect object. In English, both direct and indirect objects can undergo a passive transformation (A letter was given to the boy. => The boy was given a letter.). The translation of the second sentence is prohibited in French because only direct objects can be passivized.

In a passive sentence, the grammatical subject is typically the recipient or the goal of the action denoted by the verb. Passive sentences can be agentless when the agent is obvious or not relavant, as is the case for the passive sentences in the corpus.

1.5.3 The Corpus

The corpus contains four types of errors which are further subdivided into an assymmetrical number of error subtypes. Each of these subtypes is preceded by a designation code that will be adopted for the whole of this thesis. The list of the actual verbs appearing in the corpus and an example for each error type are also included.

1.5.3.1 Errors in Preposition Use

1. **Pre DI**: The direct object in French is converted into an indirect object (addition: $\emptyset$ = > *à*).

   #53 to pray to / *prier*

   #44 to listen to / *écouter*

   #14 to look at / *montrer*

   #30 to point at / *montrer*

   #48 to point at / *indiquer* (control sentence)

Example: *Il écoute à son ami.*

2. **Pre ID**: The indirect object is converted into a direct object (omission: *à* = > $\emptyset$).

   #41 to attend / *assister à*

   #35 to play / *jouer à*

   #13 to escape / *échapper à*

   #27 to disobey / *désobéir à*

   #36 to harm / *nuire à* (control sentence)

Example: *Il obéit ses parents.*

3. **Pre DP**: The direct object is converted into a prepositional object (addition: $\emptyset$ = > *pour*).

   #50 to pay for / *payer*

   #1 to hope for / *espérer*

   #29 to wait for / *attendre*

   #23 to look for / *chercher*

   #51 to ask for / *demander* (control sentence)

Example: *Il cherche pour ses clés.*

4. **Pre PD**: The prepositional object is converted into a direct object (omission: *de* = > ϕ).

   #49 to doubt / *douter de*

   #52 to lack / *manquer de*

   #10 to play / *jouer à*

   #68 to change / *changer de*

   #31 to discuss / *discuter de* (control sentence)

Example: *Il joue le piano.*

5. **Pre IDd**: The indirect object is converted into a direct object in a dative construction (omission: *à* =>ϕ)

   #2 to send / *envoyer à*

   #47 to order / *ordonner à*

   #15 to promise / *promettre à*

   #7 to suggest / *suggérer à*

   #60 to ask (a question) / *poser* (*une question*) *à* (control sentence)

Example: *Il envoie son ami une lettre.*

1.5.3.2 Errors in Personal Pronoun Use

1. **Ppr DI**: The direct object is converted into an indirect object (*les* = > *leur*, *le*/*la* = > *lui*)

   #63 to listen / *écouter*

   #66 to point at / *montrer*

   #57 to pray to / *prier*

   #73 to look at / *regarder*

   #19 to point at / *indiquer* (control sentence)

Example: *Il lui regarde.*

2. **Ppr ID**: The indirect object is converted into a direct object (*leur* = > *les*, *lui* = > *le*/*la*)

   #67 to answer / *répondre à*

   #58 to please / *plaire à*

   #22 to teach / *apprendre à*

   #17 to telephone / *téléphoner à*

   #65 to succeed / *succéder à* (control sentence)

Example: *Il les apprend à nager.*

3. **Ppr PD**: The prepositional is converted into a direct object (*en* = > *le/la/les*)

#59 to lack / *manquer de*

#55 to play / *jouer de*

#70 to discuss / *discuter de*

#37 to doubt / *douter de*

#26 to discuss / *discuter de* (control sentence)

Example: *Il ne le doute pas.*

4. **Ppr IDd**: The indirect object is converted into a direct object in a dative constructive (d)

(*lui* = > *le/la*, *leur* = > *les*)

#9 to tell / *dire à*

#28 to ask / *demander à*

#18 to allow, permit / *permettre à*

#40 to give / *donner à*

#32 to forbid / *défendre à* (control sentence)

Example: *Il la donne des fleurs.*

5. **Ppr DIds**: The direct object is converted into an indirect object in a disjunctive form (ds)

(*les* = > *à eux / à elles*, *le* = > *à lui*, *la* = > *à elle*)

#74 to listen to / *écouter*

#16 to point at / *montrer*

#24 to pray to / *prier*

#39 to look at / *regarder*

#19 to point at / *indiquer* (control sentence)

Example: *Il regarde à elle.*

6. **Ppr IIds**: The indirect object is converted into an indirect object in a disjunctive form (ds)

(*lui* = > *à lui / à elle*, *leur* = > *à eux / à elles*)

#3 to answer / *répondre à*

#77 to please / *plaire à*

#62 to teach / *enseigner à*

#75 to telephone / *téléphoner à*

#6 to renounce / *renoncer à* (control sentence)

Example: *Il répond à elle.*

7. **Ppr IIdsd**: The indirect object is conveted into an indirect object in a disjunctive (ds) form in a dative (d) construction (*lui* = > *à lui / à elle, leur* = > *à eux / à elles*)

#46 to tell / *dire à*

#33 to ask / *demander à*

#11 to allow, permit / *permettre à*

#25 to give / *donner à*

#32 to forbid / *défendre à* (control sentence)

Example: *Il donne à elle des fleurs.*

1.5.3.3 Errors in Relative Pronoun Use

1. **Rpr ID**: The indirect object is converted into a direct object (*auquel* = > *que, à laquelle* = > *que, à qui* = > *que, à qui / à laquelle* = > *que*)

#56 to resist / *résister à*

#5 to survive / *survivre à*

#38 to forgive / *pardonner à*

#34 to ressemble / *ressembler à*

#71 to succeed / *succéder à* (control sentence)

Example: *La personne qu'il ressemble le plus est son père.*

2. **Rpr DP**: The direct object is converted into a prepositional object (*que* = > *que...pour*)

#61 to pay for / *payer*

#54 to hope for / *espérer*

#12 to wait for / *attendre*

#69 to look for / *chercher*

#8 to ask for / *demander* (control sentence)

Example: *Le livre qu'il a payé pour est bon.*

3. **Rpr PD**: The prepositional object is converted into a direct object (*dont* = > *que*)

#21 to doubt / *douter de*

#42 to lack / *manquer de*

#64 to play / *jouer de*

#4 to change / *changer de*

#72 to discuss / *discuter de* (control sentence)

Example: *L'employé qu'il doute le plus est pourtant loyal et expérimenté.*

1.5.3.4 Errors in Passive Transformation

Pas ID: The indirect object undergoes the passive transformation like a direct object (0 = > passive)

#45 to explain / *expliquer*

#78 to tell / *dire à*

#20 to send / *envoyer à*

#76 to lend, loan / *prêter à*

#43 to forgive / *pardonner à* (control sentence)

Example: *Il a été dit de partir.*

Chapter 2

DESCRIPTION OF THE EXPERIMENT

2.1 Description of Subjects

A table of complete descriptive statistics on the subjects of this research is found in Appendix A. One hundred and thirty native French speakers were contacted of whom 103 subjects responded.

Subjects were selected from three linguistic environments: English unilingual (Edmonton, Alberta), French-English bilingual (Montreal, Quebec) and French unilingual (Quebec outside of Montreal).

The 20 subjects from Edmonton and the 25 subjects from Sainte-Catherine-de-la-Jacques-Cartier, Quebec, were contacted personally by the author. The 34 subjects from Montreal and the 24 subjects from Victoriaville, Quebec, were recruited by friends and relatives of the author.

Subjects originated from three different places: 11 subjects were born in France, 77 were born in Quebec and 15 were born in English Canada. Among the 11 subjects of French origin, five resided in Edmonton and six in Quebec. Subjects born in Quebec were all residents of Quebec. Those who were born in Quebec but residing in Alberta were excluded from this research; such a category would have been difficult to analyze because of the extent to which an individual has adapted, integrated or assimilated to the Albertan community which is a function of several factors, including personal attitude and the duration of stay in Alberta.

The 103 subjects came from four age groups. Fourteen subjects were between the ages of 18 to 25 years old, 11 of which were students. Thirty-one subjects were between 26 to 39 years old. The largest group contained 45 subjects aged between 40 to 55 years old. The last age group contained 13 subjects between the ages of 56 to 75 years old. Subjects younger than 18 years were systematically excluded from the study for legal and cognitive developmental reasons. The mean, median and mode are 42 years of age.

Education level varied among subjects. The first group, which had completed 0 to 12 years of education, included 28 subjects, of which 24 completed a high school diploma. This diploma is obtained in 11 years in Quebec and 12 years in Alberta. The lowest level of education was 7 years obtained by a 70 year old respondant. Forty subjects had a college or university undergraduate degree and hence had 13 to 17 years of education. Thirty-five subjects had 18 years or more of education. It was necessary to find educational equivalencies in France to ensure that French subjects were placed in the proper category.

Nineteen of the 103 subjects were teachers of the French language, 13 of them were from Edmonton. Among these 13 subjects, ten were instructors in the Department of Modern Languages and

Comparative Studies (Faculty of Arts of University of Alberta) or at Faculté Saint-Jean, the French faculty of the University of Alberta.

2.2 Instrument Used in the Experiment

2.2.1 Medium of Presentation

Numerous investigations have been conducted on native speakers' reaction to errors made by learners of their language. The format of the stimuli ranged from videorecording, to audiorecording, to written support, to a combination of two means. Although there are advantages to using audio-visual methods of evaluation, the written form has proven more suitable in this type of research.

The judgement of a videotaped corpus has the advantage of being more natural; most of the studies using this format show real or simulated conversations. However, there are flaws associated with this method, including the lack of objectivity. Galloway (1980) presented videotaped interviews to judges, allowing them to react to the entire paralinguistic context of the communicative act. She concluded that a visible effort to communicate on the part of the learner elicited a more lenient response from the empathic evaluator. Furthermore, Galloway (1980) claims that some cultures may hold a more sympathetic attitude and may be more accepting than others. On the other hand, if the non-native speaker displays less acceptable social attributes, the judge's evaluation may be unfavorably influenced.

In the case of an audiotaped corpus, the Lambert matched-guise experiment, in which judges were unaware that they were judging the same person twice, showed that social attributes and stereotypes play an important role in judging a speaker's performance. Gynan (1984) advocated that the better measure is one consisting of items evaluative of speech and not of items evaluative of the speaker. Moreover, the evaluation of videotaped and audiotaped material introduces a phonological component that might bias the results of a research strictly interested in morphology and syntax. Indeed, strong accentedness may distract a judge from a grammatical task (Lennon, 1990). Lennon affirmed that a fluent delivery in performance may direct listener attention away from deficiencies in other areas: phonological, grammatical, syntactic, discoursive, or lexical. He added that in a written performance, primacy is placed on correctness of form with content being the main criterium in oral performances. Lennon suggests that grammatically deviant forms are more recognizable in writing because most native speakers' ideas of correctness are probably based on formal written language.

Chaudron (1982) did an inventory of studies on the judgement of utterances by native speakers and non-native speakers and found 42 studies utilizing the written form and 20 making use of the spoken form.

Delisle (1982) demonstrated in two separate studies that there is no significant difference between the ratings of written and spoken language. Even though these results contradict those found in the studies mentioned above, they further support the use of the written questionnaire as the research medium for the present study.

Furthermore, the written format was chosen for practical and financial reasons. The researcher depended largely on third parties to gather data in Quebec, hence it would have been more complicated and time consuming to arrange for the rating of spoken material.

2.2.2 Context of Stimuli

One concern about the corpus was the contextualization of error. McCretton and Rider (1993) sugested that subjects' judgements may vary depending on the format of the questionnaire. Sentences may be presented individually, as in an exercise, or alternatively sentences may be presented in their original form, embedded in a meaningful supportive context as a piece of continuous prose. Hadden (1991) favored spontaneous speech rather than contrived sentences exemplifying specific error types, in order to obtain samples of discourse that more closely resemble real-life communication.

Ludwig (1982) noted that Guntermann, Piazza and Chastain used artificially created sample sentences to illustrate what learners might say or write, rather than real examples from natural second language learner speech or writing. Such a procedure allows maximum control of the variables that affect language comprehensibility. The experimental conditions, however, do not replicate real language use.

Johanson (1978) claimed that samples collected from learners' speech or writing normally contain a mixture of error types and often only a limited number of examples of each error type. This makes it difficult to establish a correlation between specific error types and native speakers' reactions.

Riches (1984), who did her research in a contextualized setting, suggested that the degree of naturalness can be sacrificed to achieve more comparable variables.

Ellis (1991) claimed that data should ideally come from natural conditions, but acknowledged that most studies present judges with discrete decontextualized sentences and that only a few studies use a continuous text or provide a situation for each sentence.

Davies (1985) noted that it would be impossible to work through all potential contexts for an error in order to see whether it affects communication in any of these contexts. Undoubtedly, the same error might be understood better in a specific context than in another because of redundancy of features, and hence not disrupt communication to the same extent. Further, there might in fact be more potential distractions from a specific task when errors are in a contextualized passage.

Khalil (1985), in a study where context was treated as an independent variable, provides evidence that the presence of immediate linguistic context does not influence native speakers' ability to interpret the writer's intent. These findings run counter to the general assumption regarding the relevance of context. He suggests that it is necessary to look at not only the amount of context included in the corpus but also the relevance of that context.

For these reasons, no attempt was made to contextualize the sentences in this investigation. The corpus consisted of contrived sentences constructed from samples of real errors made by Anglophones learning French. However every attempt was made to devise sentences that were semantically plausible.

2.2.3 Measurement

Two rating measures could have been used in this study: a dichotomous measure or a scale. Chaudron (1982) reviewed 39 studies of metalinguistic judgements of native speakers and non-native speakers. Nearly half used the binary choice: yes / no, natural / unnatural, accept / reject, comprehensible / incomprehensible, good / silly, wrong / right, grammatical / ungrammatical, correct / incorrect, acceptable / unacceptable, possible / impossible. The other half of the investigations on production ratings by native speakers and non-native speakers employed Likert scales ranging from 3 to 20 points, giving a mean of 5.6, a median of 4.5 and a mode of 3. The abbreviation used in this thesis to indicate mean is 'm'. Chaudron (1982) suggests that in psychometric studies that rating scales tend to be more reliable. For this reason, a relative five-point scale was chosen as the means of measurement in this research.

On the comprehensibility scale, a sentence receiving a score of 1 was totally incomprehensible and a score of 5 perfectly comprehensible. Similarly, a score of 1 on the acceptability scale indicated that the sentence was absolutely unacceptable while a score of 5 corresponded to an entirely acceptable sentence.

In his survey of studies similar to this research, Ellis (1991) enumerated the different tasks subjects were required to perform. In addition to the judgement of errors, tasks included location, correction and/or description of errors. In the present study, subjects were asked to judge the error and locate it by underlying it in the sentence.

2.2.4 Error selection

Because the goal of this research was to measure the reaction of French native speakers to errors made by Anglophones learning French, several studies on errors made by second language learners of French were examined: Lyster (1987), Besnard (1995), Piazza (1986), Ensz (1982), Magnan (1983), Eisenstein (1983). The investigator's own French second language teaching experience also served in constituting an inventory of systematic malformations in the French produced by students in both written and oral production at the intermediate-advanced and advanced levels. The error corpus was gathered from students in the following settings of the University of Alberta:

- Faculty of Arts: French 250
- Faculté Saint-Jean: Français 160, Français 161, Français 210, Français 241, French for Professionals (intermediate and advanced levels)
- Faculty of Extension: Conversational French III, Advanced Conversational French

It was assumed that students who persevered in learning French up to that level showed enough interest in the language and acquired sufficient linguistic abilities to explore opportunities to interact with French native speakers. Consequently, such students would likely be the ones to which French native speakers might most frequently be exposed. By the same token, errors produced by those learners would be the ones most often encountered by French native speakers.

Some of the grammatical errors investigated in previous studies covered verb morphology, verb tense, agreement, word order, pronouns, prepositions and passive transformation. The researcher selected errors related to verb transitivity which can be observed in four different uses: prepositions, personal pronouns, relative pronouns and passive transformations.

2.2.5 Corpus

The four types of errors studied were further divided into several subtypes of errors: five subtypes in use of prepositions, seven subtypes in use of personal pronouns and three subtypes in use of relative pronouns. The error in passive transformation does not include any subtypes. The asymmetry in the subdivision of subtypes of error is due to the fact that although some errors are theoretically possible they are not observed in learners' performance.

Consequently, the corpus contains 16 subtypes of errors with four tokens each. To those 64 erroneous sentences, 14 control sentences were added for a total of 78 sentences in the corpus. The number of control sentences does not equate the number of subtypes of errors. In fact, two sets of two errors in the use of personal pronouns have the same correct corresponding form. Control sentences were

added to the corpus in order to illustrate the correct usage for each error type and to prevent the respondents from forming a mental set of incorrectness.

There were no distractor items included in the questionnaire. To have done so would have made the questionnaire unreasonably long. Distractor items, according to Ellis' (1991) definition, consist of sentences exemplifying some grammatical structure other than that which is the focus of the study. Their inclusion helps prevent the learner from identifying the target structure and thus from accessing explicit knowledge. Ellis adds that relatively few studies include distractor items.

The 78 sentences were presented in randomized order.

Some sentences were based on actual students dialogues and compositions, others were constructed in whole or in part when sufficient examples could not be located easily. The construction of the corpus necessitated several precautions in order to 1) represent the performance level of students, 2) facilitate the task of the judges, and 3) be of similar weight lexically, syntactically and semantically.

The measures used to control the uniformity of content and form of sentences were:

- the use of common vocabulary neutral in content; controversial subject matter could trigger emotional reactions
- the use of common vocabulary credible from a second language learner of French at the intermediate-advanced level; scholarly words were eliminated; complex idiomatic expressions and literary form were avoided; when possible, cognate verbs were used because they are most likely to be learned first and to be used more readily by learners
- the use of commonplace situations, as unfamiliar topics may appear less comprehensible to the judges (in which case, the subjects may judge content rather than form and hence bias the results)
- the elimination of pronominal verbs; the direct object and indirect object reflexive pronouns have the same form, therefore making it impossible for subjects to judge the proper use of pronouns in respect to verb transitivity
- the avoidance of cases of past participle agreement; some raters might not master these rules and focus on that type of error and get distracted from the task
- the normalization of any error other than the one studied in this investigation, to keep only one error per sentence
- the control of sentence weight; each sentence is between 16 and 20 syllables in length and includes one error at the surface structure, placed in the middle portion of the sentences.

2.2.6 Sociolinguistic Variables

The experimenter chose the sociolinguistic variables mentioned above (see section 1.1) to compare with the results obtained in other studies looking at native speakers' judgement of interlanguage. In fact, eight of the variables examined in the present research were used in previous studies. Two variables were added by the experimenter: frequency of contact with Anglophones and importance placed on knowing English culture, values and lifestyle. It was postulated that the more French native speakers have contact with Anglophones, the more they are likely to understand and accept errors. Similarly, the more native French speakers are empathic towards English culture (measured by the importance placed on knowing English culture) the more tolerant they should be.

2.2.7 Questionnaire

The questionnaire presented to subjects included one page of instructions, six pages consisting of the corpus of sentences and two pages of questions to establish a subject profile (see Appendix B).

Because the researcher could not explain the task in person to most of the subjects, it was imperative that the instructions be as precise and complete as possible. Hence, the following information was provided to judges: purpose of the study, assurance of confidentiality, pragmatic definitions of comprehensibility and acceptability, explicit examples and time required to complete the task. In addition, underlined and bold characters were used to attract the subject's attention to important information.

The middle part of the questionnaire, the corpus, is discussed above (see section 2.2.5).

The two pages requesting personal information were purposely placed at the end of the questionnaire in order to avoid influencing or intimidating subject's judgements. It was comprised of 10 questions, some of which contained subquestions pertaining to sociolinguistic factors.

2.3 Data-Collection Procedures

2.3.1 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with nine subjects of three different backgrounds: three from Quebec, three from Western Canada and three from France. Although no statistical calculations were done, the results were clearly different for the three groups. The European French subjects were more

severe in their judgement, followed by Edmontonians, with Quebecers being the least severe. These results are consistent with the final results obtained in this study. No other sociolinguistic variable could be analyzed because most subjects were young females with university education, living in Edmonton.

The purpose of the pilot study was mainly to test the relevance of the five-point scale and to ensure that respondents could indeed recognize intended errors by underlining them. After studying underlined errors, the corpus was edited in order to eliminate any ambiguity and to retain only errors relevant to this study. The renewed version of the corpus was then further reviewed by a subject from the pilot study who is an experienced writer.

2.3.2 Distribution of the Questionnaire

The final version of the questionnaire was forwarded to several resource persons in Montreal and Victoriaville, who in turn distributed the questionnaires to the subjects they recruited. A brief explanation was offered to all representatives, but essentially, the questionnaire was designed to be self-explanatory. Sixteen of these questionnaires were returned by mail, while the remainder were given to the author or to her assistants personally. The researcher delivered and collected the questionnaires in Edmonton and Ste-Catherine-de-la-Jacques-Cartier. In the majority of cases, respondents took the questionnaire home, then returned it to the resource person once completed. Therefore, respondents read the sentences and marked them without a proctor. The means through which subjects received and returned the questionnaire might have affected their method of rating. A subject who must return a questionnaire in person, rather than filling it out completely anonymously, might feel more threatened by the risk of being judged or evaluated.

Although it was explained that the subject's own opinion was needed in the study, some individuals manifested insecurity at the thought of being tested. One potential subject refused to fill out the questionnaire after reading questions 3 and 9 pertaining to level of education and knowledge of French grammar. Tannous (1992), in a study involving similar groups, like the researcher, found Edmontonians to be "extremely defensive when approached", as opposed to the groups from France and Quebec.

Subjects did not receive any honorarium as an incentive to participation.

Subjects were not totally randomly selected.

2.3.3 Time Required to Complete the Task

As indicated in the instructions , subjects were asked to give an immediate response. It was stressed that it was important for the subject to respond intuitively and not to change an initial response. However, no time limit was imposed. Subjects were required to write the time they needed to complete the task, but because the experimenter was not present during the judging task, it was impossible to control this element. Ninety-three subjects stated a time, which ranged from 10 to 65 minutes with a mean of 24 minutes, a median of 25 minutes and a mode of 30 minutes.

The minimum time required to complete the task under the researcher's supervision during the pilot study was 25 minutes. In this study the five subjects who completed the task in 10 minutes and the 17 subjects who completed the task in 15 minutes might have given their very first impression as requested in the instructions and probably moved quickly from one item to the next. The other explanation for that short time period might be a wrong estimation on the subject's part of the actual time required to accomplish the task. In fact, there was no indication at the beginning of the task that they should record their time.

2.3.4 Rehearsal

Subject responses show that 11 subjects changed their minds in judging 39 sentences for acceptability and 25 sentences for comprehensibility. The higher number of changes in acceptability is easily explainable by the more subjective nature of acceptability.

Thirty changes occurred in the first five items, 43 changes in all occurred in the first page (14 items) and 23 changes appeared in the five other pages of the questionnaire. Obviously, this indicates that these subjects were trying to adjust to the task at the beginning.

This raises the question of task rehearsal. Ellis (1991) claims that some studies made efforts to ensure that subjects were familiar with the task of making grammatical judgements. Chaudron (1982), in his review of similar studies, recorded a small minority of researchers who gave their judges an initial training to ensure they fully understand the nature of the task and to allow them to establish their criteria.

It might have helped the subjects of the present study to have had a drill session. However it was practically impossible to have that type of session because the experimenter had delegates to recruit subjects in Quebec. Furthermore, the average length of time to complete the judging task, based on the pilot study, was of 25 minutes. Lengthening this time period might have caused fatigue and created inconsistencies in the last sentences rather than in the first. In addition, only eleven subjects experienced initial hesitations.

2.3.5 Data Tabulation

Of the questionnaires received, one had to be excluded because the respondant forgot to answer the questions on sociolinguistic variables and another for not having given any acceptability judgements. Eight subjects did not underline errors as requested. Eighteen subjects not only underlined errors, but offered suggestions to improve the sentences. One respondant did not circle any number for control sentences. In this case, a score of five was assigned for comprehensibility and acceptability. One respondant forgot to judge the last page of sentences. One respondant inversed comprehensibility and acceptibility ratings. His answers had high scores for acceptability and low scores for comprehensibility, which is illogical; his ratings were hence readjusted. When two scores were given, the lowest was kept. When two answers were given for comprehensibility and none for acceptability or vice versa, the scores were redistributed, the higher score attributed to comprehensibility and the lowest to acceptability, which is the definite trend for all sentences, for all subjects. More acceptablility scales than comprehensibility scales were left unrated, perhaps due to the subjective character of acceptability which may trigger more hesitation on the part of a judge.

2.3.6 Statistics

This study produced hierarchies of subtypes and types of error and then compared these hierarchies. It also examined various sociolinguistic factors: gender, age, level of education, place of origin, place of residence, frequency of contact with anglophones, importance to know English culture, knowledge of French grammar, and experience in teaching French.

A SPSS software (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used in tabulating data. Means (m) and standard deviations (s) were computed for each individual error, each subtype and type of error. A one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) was used to test the significant differences between the sociolinguistic factors for each type and subtype of error. No statistical analyses were performed at the individual error level for sociolinguistic variables. In addition, a Tukey-HSD (honestly significant difference) test was run, with the significance level set at .05, to determine where significant differences were located.

The p value was calculated for all sociolinguistic variables. A p value of $\leq .05$ was considered significant. In statistical terms, this figure indicates that the probability of the results being obtained by chance is equal or less than five in one hundred. Therefore the results obtained with this p value are not a chance phenomenon, but rather a reflection of real differences in how respondents evaluated the different error types.

All results were rounded to two decimal points, except those which reached a level of significance of $\leq .05$ where four decimal points were maintained. An asterisk marks statistically significant p values.

Coefficients of reliability of the instrument comprehensibility and acceptability reached respectively the levels of .9607 and .9866.

All computations were executed by the Centre for Research in Applied Measurement and Evaluation (CRAME), University of Alberta.

Chapter 3

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

3.1 General Findings

In 71 of the 78 items in the questionnaire, the standard deviation was greater for acceptability than for comprehensibility. In other words, respondents showed less cohesion in judging the acceptability than the comprehensibility of erroneous sentences. In fact, acceptability is a subjective notion that varies considerably, as demonstrated below according to age, gender, level of education, place of origin, place of residence, knowledge of English, knowledge of French grammar, and experience in teaching French.

Only seven sentences (9, 16, 20, 45, 63, 76, 78) show a standard deviation for comprehensibility that is greater than for acceptability. In other words, subjects did not reach as strong a consensus on comprehensibility for these seven sentences as they did for the remainder of sentences. These sentences, along with sentence 30, have a comprehensibility score of 4.00 or less. Stated differently, the sentences that are considered as more difficult to understand are also the ones that have the largest spread in scores, and therefore the ones showing the most disagreement among subjects.

Although control sentences (m = 4.62) were better comprehended than erroneous sentences (m = 4.29), the difference was not large relative to the results obtained for acceptability. The mean score for acceptability of control sentences was higher (m = 3.96) than the mean for erroneous sentences (m = 2.40). Standard deviations were similar for both groups.

Results suggest a positive correlation between comprehensibility and acceptability.

It appears that errors do not hinder comprehension but might affect communication.

3.2 Control Sentences

3.2.1 Analysis of Control Sentences

Fourteen control sentences were included in the corpus. Although in theory these error-free sentences should have received a perfect score, this is not the case. The results with regard to these sentences are very surprising. The percentage of subjects attributing a score of 5 for comprehensibility was 81.9% and the percentage of subjects attributing a score of 4 or 5 for comprehensibility of error-free sentences was 92.8%. As was found in the remainder of the corpus, acceptability scores of control

sentences were lower than comprehensibility scores. Only 57.8% of subjects gave a score of 5 and 71.9% gave a score of 4 or 5 for the acceptability of these sentences. Scores of 4 or 5 were combined to compare results with other studies where subjects were asked to rate on a three-point scale. A score of 4 or 5 would likely correspond to a score of 3 in such a scale. A perfect score of 5 for both comprehensibility and acceptibility of error-free sentences was noted in 57.4% of cases.

As in the present research, other studies did not show perfect scores in the rating of comprehensibility and acceptibility of error-free sentences. In four different experiments of Piazza's study (1980), 94% to 98% of subjects gave a perfect score for comprehensibility and 94% to 95% of subjects gave a perfect score for irritation in error-free sentences. Rifkin (1995) found that 75% to 90% of subjects recognized a "no-error condition", depending on the type of error. Hughes and Lascaratou (1982), in a study with 30 subjects judging 36 sentences, found that one in four error-free sentences was wrongly rejected by 10 subjects and another was rejected by 20 subjects.

The reasons why error-free sentences might be judged as erroneous are numerous. Ellis (1991) suggested that on a number of occasions, raters explicitly rejected sentences not on the basis of well-formedness, but because they considered an alternative sentence to be better. For example, in this study, 18 subjects offered corrections and/or suggestions to improve the error-free sentences. Some of these recommendations were related to lexical or stylistic variations. Bell's principle of attention, quoted in Wardhaugh (1986), stipulates that the more aware speakers are of their speech, the more formal the style will be. Wardhough (1986) also observed that when placed in situations which require speakers to monitor their language closely, speakers tend to do hypercorrection.

Eisenstein (1983), in reviewing Minardi's (1982) findings, suggested that any changes made in addition to the actual error correction might be counted as a measure of irritation. Bley-Vroman (1988), as quoted in Ellis (1991), found that judges tended to perform relatively poorly in identifying grammatical sentences. This finding led him to speculate poor performance was the result of a "tendency to reject when uncertain".

Another possible cause of harsh judgement of control sentences might be the nature of the data collection procedure. The majority of questionnaires were sent by the experimenter to resource persons, who in turn distributed the tests. Even though the instruction sheet was thought to be clear and complete, it might not have been the case from the subjects' point of view. During the pilot study, supervised and timed by the researcher, it was noted that subjects looked for errors in each sentence. For this reason, the word *beaucoup* was underlined in the instructions to emphasize that only *several* of the sentences contained errors.

Keller (1985) identified another confounding factor in the judgement of control sentences, namely "demand charateristics". When humans undergo a task similar to the one in this research, they often feel compelled to satisfy the non-explicit demands of the experiment. Consequently, they modify their behaviour in terms of the objective they perceive. Concretely in this study, the objective was to find errors,

and judges managed to "find" some even in error-free sentences. Furthermore, Keller (1985) mentionned that some subjects might give answers to make themselves more interesting in the eyes of the experimenter. Wardhough (1986) supports this idea and refers to Bell's principle of formality which states that "Any systematic observation of speech defines a context in which some conscious attention will be paid to that speech". All of the above-mentioned considerations may hence prevent genuine behaviour.

A low percentage of comprehensibility and acceptability of control sentences may be justified, as suggested by Piazza (1980), by the fact that some error types are made by French native speakers themselves (see section 3.4.4.3 for relative pronouns, *dont* specifically).

A last factor that might have contibuted to the low rating of correct sentences is the contrived character of the sentences. In other words, the effort to use only vocabulary, expressions, and structures plausible for the intermediate-advanced learner could have been perceived as inelegant or unnatural by some judges.

A survey of control sentences illustrates some of the explanations mentionned above. Some segments of sentences were recognized as faulty and the options suggested were lexical in nature (#19 *l'indiquer = > le dire*, #31 *but = > idée, objectif*, #32 *pendant -> durant*, #36 *rapide = > hâtive*, #43 *acte = > geste*, #48 *pancarte = > panneau*, #51 *dépenses = > frais*) and some were stylistic in nature (#8 *que l'agence a demandées = > demandées par l'agence*, #8 *arriveront = > seront remboursées*, #60 *impossible à répondre = > sans réponse possible*, #71 *à qui elle a succédé = > qu'elle a remplacée*).

A more detailed analysis shows why some control sentences were rejected. In sentence 6, *à elle* in the segment *il ne renonce pas à elle* was identified as erroneous by 18 subjects, some of whom suggested *il n'y renonce pas* as the proper form. The verb *renoncer* is a transitive indirect verb in a category where a double pronominalization is possible depending on the [± human] nature of the object. In other words, a human indirect object requires a disjunctive pronoun preceded by the preposition *à* in post-verbal position (*Il renonce à son amie. -> Il renonce à elle.*). On the contrary, a non-human indirect object requires the adverbial pronoun *y* in pre-verbal position (*Il renonce à ses vacances. -> Il y renonce.*). But Grévisse (1980) notes that in the past, the pronoun *y* and disjunctive pronouns were used in free-variation to replace a human indirect object. Since many characteristics of 17th century French have been maintained in Canada, this might explain why 20 of the 21 subjects who identified the use of *renoncer* as an error are from French Canada. One subject, who originated from Acadia, suggested *elle le renonce*. The dictionnary Robert acknowledges this form as obsolete. Interestingly, Acadia is well recognized for its old forms of French. Three subjects identified *elle même* as faulty, suggesting *elle-même* as the proper form. This reinterpretation generates a less semantically acceptable form.

In sentence 8, seven subjects underlined *que* without suggesting an alternative. A similar situation occured in control sentences 71 and 72 with relative pronouns *à qui* and *dont*. These three sentences have a relative clause inserted in the main clause which is more difficult to process than a relative clause in final position.

Sentence 19 triggered 15 negative reactions at the level of the pronoun *l'*. First, this sentence comprises an inversion, which is difficult to process. Second, this sentence contains too many anaphoras. Although the order of the anaphoras *l'* (ana 1) and *son* (ana 2) respects the order of their respective antecedents *le meilleur siège* (ant 1) and *ce délégué* (ant 2), an ambiguity seemed to have existed for at least 15 subjects. *Si tu veux le meilleur siège (ant 1) pour ce délégué (ant 2), je peux l' (ana 2) indiquer à son (ana 2) guide.*

In sentence 26, 13 subjects diagnosed *parler avec lui* as incorrect; three subjects suggested *lui en parler*. Both structures *parler à* and *parler avec* are possible but they cause different pronominalization: *parler à mon ami = > lui parler, parler avec mon ami = > parler avec lui*). Also, even after several revisions of the questionnaire, a typographic error remained in the sentence (the repetition of *en*), and was noticed by 38 subjects.

Two segments of sentence 31 were labeled as defective. Six subjects underlined *pouvoir*. In fact, *pouvoir* can be omitted without affecting sentence well-formedness: *sans pouvoir comprendre le but = > sans comprendre le but*. Eight subjects suggested omitting the preposition *de* after *discuté*. Again, *de* could be omitted because the verb *discuter* can be transitive or intransitive with a different connotation. To clarify, *discuter quelque chose* means to examine by debate, by looking at the pros and cons, while *discuter de quelque chose* signifies to talk with others by exchanging ideas on the same topic.

One error was identified in sentence 32, namely *pendant*, where *durant* was offered as a better word. Both *pendant* and *durant* designate a period of time, but *durant* insists more on the idea of duration. Practically, however, most grammarians and dictionaries consider both words to be synonymous. Rodriguez (1984) notes the use of *durant* as part of a more formal style in French Canada. Subjects could have sensed this distinction and might therefore have attempted to generate a more sophisticated sentence.

In sentence 36, seven subjects underlined the adjective *rapide*, two of whom proposed *hâtive* instead. This change can again be interpreted as a stylistic improvement.

In sentence 43, the segment *ont été pardonées* triggered 14 unfavorable reactions. *Pardonner* is a transitive indirect verb, therefore it should not undergo the passive transformation. Rodriguez (1984) mentions that *pardonner* was a transitive direct verb in the 17th and 18th centuries and that the only vestige of that previous form is in the passive voice *être pardonné*. Although the passive voice is possible, French speakers favor an active voice with the indefinite pronoun *on* (*on a pardonné*).

As for sentence 48, one alternative structure was offered by four subjects: *Une pancarte indique le stationnement réservé aux visiteurs. = > Une pancarte indique que le stationnement est réservé aux visiteurs.* Although the proposed structure is grammatical, the semantic content is altered.

For sentence 51, one minor alteration was proposed. Seven subjects suggested *pour leurs dépenses* instead of *de leurs dépenses*, both of which are acceptable.

One recommendation for sentence 60 consisted in moving the direct object *une question* directly after the verb. Béchade (1986) states that in a double transitive construction, if both objects have equal

weight, the direct object precedes the indirect object. This word order is reversed if the indirect object is shorter than the direct object, applying the principle of progression by increased weight (*principe de la progression par masses croissantes*).

As in sentence 19 (*Si tu veux le meilleur siège pour ce délégué, je peux l'indiquer à son guide.*), sentence 65 (*Quand son père prendra sa retraite, Luc lui succédera comme directeur.*) contains an inversion which makes processing more arduous.

In sentence 71, eighteen subjects judged *à qui* as defective. In fact, *à laquelle* is an alternative form. Grammarians suggest *à qui* as the most common form when the antecedent is human.

Sentence 72 triggered unusual results. Twenty-two subjects underlined *dont* as an improper construction; 21of these subjects were Canadian born. It was noticed by the researcher that the relative pronoun *dont* is inexistent in most social groups and in most speech styles. Only educated people in formal settings use *dont* rather than *que*. The historical dictionary of French by Robert states that the usage of *dont* was still unstable in the 17th century. This might explain the improper use of *que* in place of *dont* in French Canada. As observed earlier, many features of classical century French have lasted until today in Canada. In looking at the erroneous sentences illustrating the substitution of *dont* by *que*, French born subjects were clearly intolerant of the error while Canadian born subjects were much more lenient. However, Walter (1988) observed that *dont* is used only in formal settings, by very educated people, even in France.

3.2.2 Analysis of Sociolinguistic Variables in Control Sentences

Tables showing results for sociolinguistic variables of control sentences are found in Appendix C.

3.2.2.1 Gender

There is a tendency for females to understand (not significant at the .05 level) and to accept ($p = .05$) control sentences more than males. According to Wardhaugh (1986), females' speech is often closer to the standard form than that of males. It could be speculated that males feel less familiar with the normative form than females and, as suggested by Eisenstein (1983), subjects who are in doubt are more inclined to dismiss an utterance. On the other hand, this pattern of low acceptability from male judges might simply replicate the general pattern found in the whole corpus.

3.2.2.2 Age

The younger group had the highest mean in acceptability and the lowest mean in comprehensibility, without any statistic significance. This tendency for young judges to be more indulgent in their judgements is confirmed in the judgements of erroneous sentences.

3.2.2.3 Education

The most educated judges were least acceptant ($p = .05$) of the correct sentences of the corpus. Because of their contrived nature, sentences might have appeared artificial and not sufficiently refined to well educated subjects.

3.2.2.4 Place of Origin

There is a clear tendency for Quebec-born subjects to comprehend (not significant at the .05 level) and accept ($p = .01$) more correct sentences. The only exception to this is for the judgement of sentences containing relative pronouns, in which case France-born subjects scored noticeably higher for comprehensibility ($p = .02$) and acceptibility ($p = .09$). This was observed previously in the inspection of sentences 8, 71, and 72, namely that an ambivalent behaviour prevailed as to the use of the relative pronouns *à qui* vs. *à laquelle*, as well as the rejection of the pronoun *dont* among Quebecers.

3.2.2.5 Place of Residence

Quebecers outside Montreal accepted more correct sentences, while Edmontonians accepted them the least ($p = .0031$). The constant and invasive presence of English in Edmonton may generate uncertainty among subjects regarding a linguistic norm in French, and might therefore incite them to reject sentences in cases of hesitation.

3.2.2.6 Contact with Anglophones

There is a trend, without statistical significance, for subjects without contact with Anglophones to accept more correct sentences than subjects with more frequent contact with Anglophones. The latter group's language may be more contaminated by English and may create uncertainty about correct forms.

3.2.2.7 Knowledge of English

The less subjects knew English the more they accepted error-free sentences and the more they knew English the less they accepted correct sentences ($p = .0002$). The same trend is observed for comprehensibility (not significant at the .05 level). It is possible to speculate that knowledge of English may confuse judges concerning the normative form in French. And, as explained by Eisenstein (1983), when a subject is in doubt, he/she is more inclined to discard an utterance. By analyzing of the variables place of residence, contact with Anglophones, and knowledge of English, it can be concluded that there is a negative correlation between the predominance of English in a subject's life and his/her acceptance of correct utterances. In other words, the more English prevails in a subject's life the less that subject accepts correct French sentences. According to Eisenstein's (1983) hypothesis, the linguistic ambiguity created by the infiltration of English may provoque sufficient uncertainty to cause a subject to reject a form.

3.2.2.8 Degree of Importance Placed on the Knowledge of English Culture

Subjects who do not place importance on being familiar with the values, culture, and lifestyle of Anglophones tend to comprehend and accept more correct utterances (not significant at the .05 level). Perhaps subjects who value the effort required to reach Anglophones are also the ones who live in an English or bilingual environment and who have a better knowledge of English. The 39 subjects who do not consider it important to get acquainted with the English culture demonstrate an ethnocentricity that might in fact preserve their French from English incursion and therefore may maintain a form closer to the norm.

3.2.2.9 Knowledge of French Grammar

There is a tendency (not significant at the .05 level) for subjects who judged themselves as "very good" and "good" in the evaluation of their knowledge of French grammar to accept correct sentences.

Conversely, subjects with a poor self-rating of their French grammar understood and accepted the correct sentences less. A person with low competency in French may be uncertain about grammatical correctness.

3.2.2.10 French teaching

Teachers of French understood ($p = .05$) and accepted ($p = .08$) less correct sentences than non-teachers. These results are in agreement with Hughes and Lascaratou's (1982) findings, in which more teachers wrongly rejected control sentences than non-teachers. McCretton and Rider (1993), suggested that teachers may feel that their own knowledge of the language is being tested and, as a reaction to this, they tend to mark more severely.

3.3 Analysis of Sociolinguistic Variables in Erroneous Sentences

Tables showing the results of sociolinguistic variables in erroneous sentences are in Appendix D.

3.3.1 Gender

No sex-based differences were observed for comprehensibility. For acceptability, in all subtypes of errors, females rated higher than males (not significant at the .05 level). Ensz (1982) and Magnan (1983) detected no difference for the gender variable in their respective studies. Also, in Gynan's study (1984) sex accounted for very little variance. Politzer (1978), on the other hand, discovered that out of 58 statistically significant responses, 13 were gender dependent. Nevertheless, gender was not the principal variable, because age and level of education accounted for 16 and 29 statistically significant responses respectively. The tendency for females to demonstrate more tolerance than males towards erroneous sentences requires clarification. Since, according to Wardhough (1986), female speech is closer to the linguistic norm, a deviation from the norm should be perceived as less acceptable to females than to males, but this is not the case. In addition, Wardhough (1986) stated that there is far more reading failure in schools among boys than among girls. It could be hypothesized that a lack of linguistic competency triggers an insecurity among subjects. In time, this lack of assurance might incite subjects to judge more severely in order to demonstrate that they are indeed capable of fulfilling the grammatical task. This apprehension was in fact expressed by several potential male subjects during recruitment. In fact, only 37 males volunteered for the study as opposed to 66 females. Another hypothetical interpretation could be that females are more tolerant or show more empathy towards struggling learners. A confounding factor

might also explain that situation. Males subjects are more educated than female subjects (81% of males and 70% of females had post-secondary education). It will illustrated below that the most educated are also the least tolerant.

3.3.2 Age

In 13 of the 16 subtypes of error, the younger group had the lowest scores for comprehensibility (not significant at the .05 level), while in the 16 subtypes of error, the younger group scored the highest ($p < .05$) for acceptability. In other words, the group of 18 to 25 year olds was by far the most accepting of errors but tended to comprehend less than other age groups.

Although no age discrimination was found in the studies of Ensz (1982) and Gynan (1984), age accounted for variance in results in several other studies. Most of these studies compared children or adolescents with adults. Magnan (1983) discovered that adolescent subjects (11 to 16 years of age) and adult subjects were prone to reject different types of errors. Eisenstein (1983), commenting on various studies, concluded that children are generally more accepting of errors than adults. She added that significant differences prevailed between teenagers and adults, but she did not specify at which level these differences occurred. Politzer (1978) found 16 out of 60 significant variables to be due to age. Though all subjects were teenagers, the youngest group (13 years old) generated a different hierarchy of errors than the other groups. Ludwig (1982) established that younger subjects tend to be more accepting than other age groups of errors of all types. Albrechtsen et al. (1980) affirmed that the evaluations given by adolescents differed significantly from those given by adults. They added that age seemed to be more significant than regional origin.

In reference to Piaget's stages of intellectual development, Brown (1987) stated that adolescents have virtually (but not totally) mastered their native language. Since the last stage of cognitive development extends until the age of 16, significant differences are expected between a child's, an adolescent's and an adult's judgement of errors. The researcher of this study specifically excluded subjects under the age of 18 to avoid having to deal with a cognitive development variable.

Vann et al. (1984) provided an analysis of results by specific age group, placing them from the most to the least tolerant: $\geq$ 55 years old, $\leq$ 34 years old, 35-44 years old, 45-54 years old. They observed a pattern of decreasing tolerance between the three younger age groups, but the pattern appears to be reversed by the results obtained in the oldest group. Vann et al. (1984) speculate that people might change in their tolerance toward errors as they grow older. It is somewhat complicated to compare these results with the present research as age groups do not correspond.

In the present study, the most accepting group is clearly the youngest group (18 to 25 years of age). The second most tolerant group is the 40 to 55 year old group, while the two other groups showed

similar tolerance levels. Different hypotheses could be advanced to explain this lenience among the young. In a book called *La crise des langues*, Maurais (1985) enumerates the abundant complaints from all continents about the laxness of the young, the decrease of linguistic standards in schools and universities, the failure by college students in writing tests, the decline of language teaching and so on. However, Maurais (1985) questions this state of crisis; he shows that people have always complained about the deplorable linguistic performance of next generations.

Wardhough (1986) claims that the age factor is very important in language evaluation. Younger speakers use language differently than older speakers. Fishman (1971) affirms that although grandparent and grandchild may communicate, they are unlikely to have the same system.

The young subjects in this investigation might have a less rigid attitude towards a language norm, because they themselves may be further from that norm than are older people. They are in the active process of language evolution and probably do not see their speech as deviant but rather as different.

The other group worth examining more closely is the 40 to 55 year-old group, which is the second most lenient group. Baby boomers belong to that age group. Some interpretations of these results can be proposed. According to Jacques Hamel, professor of sociology at the Université de Montréal, (in an interview given to *Société Radio-Canada*, during the program *Signe des temps*, winter of 1996) Baby boomers have succeeded in life. Since their future is secure, they can have a more relaxed attitude in life, which could be translated into a more lenient judgement of errors. On the other hand, the 26 to 39 year old age group is without power or influence. Members of Generation X have to be more aggressive in order to achieve their goals. This combativeness may be reflected in their judgement of errors. Subjects in the older age group (56 years old or more) are traditionally considered to be conservative and should therefore theoretically be more sensitive to any deviance from the norm.

3.3.3 Education

Subjects of all levels of education scored similarly for comprehensibility of errors, but very obvious differences were noted for acceptability ($p < .01$). The more educated subjects were more severe in judgement of errors and conversely, the less educated the most lenient in their judgements.

Some investigations are in agreement with the findings of the present study. Johansson (1978) claimed that a judge with no academic training is somewhat more generous in his/her judgement than the academically trained evaluator. Ludwig (1982) noted that raters who have undergone less rigorous academic programs tend to be more accepting for all error types than their counterparts. On the other hand, other studies obtained different results. Mulac (1974), cited in Eisenstein (1983), did not find significant differences between college and non-college educated judges. Giles (1970, 1971) though, also cited in

Eisenstein (1983), noted that a college education caused language perceptions to become more liberal and less ethnocentric.

It is difficult to measure the degree of liberalness and ethnocentricity of subjects. Question 8 in the questionnaire asked subjects if it is important for a Francophone living in Cananda to know about the values, culture, and lifestyle of Anglophones. This question was raised to determine the degree of empathy subjects have towards Anglophones. Among the most educated group, 62% stated that it was very important to understand the culture, values, and lifestyle of Anglophones; 56% of the whole sample were of this opinion. In addition, 34% of the most educated group found the same factors to be of little importance, while 38% of the whole sample found them of little or no importance. These numbers seem to demonstrate that indeed the group with 18 years of education or more shows more empathy and less ethnocentricity, but this does not seem to translate into indulgence in judging errors. This does not exclude the possibility of them being more accepting of second language speakers if they were to meet them face to face.

Eisenstein (1983) suggested that it was complicated to separate the variables of age and level of education. Many of the studies she analyzed contrasted children or adolescents with adults as judges. In these cases, it is evident that age and level of education are interwoven. A ten-year old is less educated than a sixteen-year old who in turn is less educated than a twenty-year old. It is not so obvious though, when comparing adult subjects. In the present study, the most educated subjects do not include any of the 14 subjects belonging to the youngest group, the group that is by far the most tolerant.

3.3.4 Place of Origin

The three groups studied, originating from France, Quebec, and Canada (outside Quebec), scored similarly for comprehensibility. As for acceptability judgements, the group born in France is without doubt the least accepting group, with 6 of the 16 variables obtaining a level of statistical significance. There are no distinct trends for the other two groups.

These results compare with those of Galloway (1980), where Spanish native speakers from the United States were much more tolerant than Spanish native speakers from Spain in all facets of the communicative performance of American students of Spanish. Schooling in France is more formal and academic than in Canada. It is reasonable to speculate that the unfavorable judgement of erroneous sentences by French subjects reflects a rigid attitude associated with the prescriptive education. Mahmoudian (1976) mentions the existence of a "*bon français*", preached by a certain schooling tradition among the Parisian bourgeoisie. Tannous (1986) found the French to be more categoric in their judgements; they judged utterances as either natural (score of 1) or unnatural (score of 5), with nothing in between.

Rifkin (1995) claimed that each target culture is characterized by different speech communities with different cultural norms. In this study, French subjects should therefore have stricter norms than Canadian subjects. Rifkin (1995) added that native French speakers may have a different view of non-native French speakers than native Spanish speakers have of non-native Spanish speakers. This would be in part due to the important differences between these two cultures, not only due to the differences between the languages themselves.

3.3.5 Place of Residence

Subjects comprehended errors differently according to their place of residence. Subjects from Montreal comprehended errors the most, while subjects from Quebec outside of Montreal understood them the least in 13 of 16 variables, with 4 variables being statistically significant. It could be assumed that, when it comes to understanding errors made by Anglophones learning French, living in an English or French-English bilingual environment is an advantage over living in a monolingual French environment.

The only statistically significant variable in which Edmontonians scored higher than Montrealers in comprehensibility is in the case of passivization of an indirect object in French (*J'ai été dit de partir.*). This calque of English is commonly heard in the Franco-Albertan linguistic community, therefore would not have sounded deviant to most subjects in this group.

The pattern of acceptability of errors is exactly reversed: subjects from Quebec outside of Montreal accepted the most and Montrealers accepted the least errors at a high level of significance ($p < .01$). In other words, subjects who understood the least accepted the most and vice versa. One could suggest a "metropolitan syndrome", that is to say that speakers of a specific language living in a capital of arts and culture may be convinced that they possess the best forms of expression, including linguistic expression. By the same token, these speakers may judge any linguistic deviation more severely. This uncompromising attitude has often been reported by French speakers not residing in Paris concerning Parisians. This rigid attitude may be transferable to judgement of errors made by Anglophones. It is interesting to note that Magnan (1983) obtained results which would confirm the position that speakers from the metropolis perform better than their provincial counterparts. For instance, in a task consisting of identifying and correcting errors, Parisian subjects performed better than subjects from Nancy, both with adolescent and adult subjects.

Other studies examined the residence variable in error judgement. Albrechtsen et al. (1980) obtained results showing no difference between geographic groups of subjects. Politzer (1978) observed a distinction among different regional groupings in Germany and Switzerland. Nevertheless, he added a warning about a possible confounding factor: each town had a different socioeconomical status.

This study may likewise have a confounding factor. Montrealers are also the most educated respondants. A sub-division by place of origin of the group with higher education shows the following figures: 20 of the 34 Montrealers (59%), 10 of the 20 Edmontonians (50%) and 5 of the 49 residents of Quebec outside of Montreal (10%). The overrepresentation of highly educated subjects from Montreal could be accounted for by the fact that one of the researcher's delegates in Montreal, in trying to help, specifically sought out nine highly educated people, convinced that they would execute the task more accurately. In addition, another assistant in Montreal distributed seven questionnaires to colleagues working in the research field of health administration. Furthermore, the high percentage (50%) of highly educated judges in Edmonton is due in part to the fact that the researcher used university instructor colleagues to complete the task, after unsuccessfully attempting to recruit Franco-Albertan subjects. Several potential respondants approached showed reluctance, claiming to lack knowledge of French grammar. This lack of confidence in one's regional linguistic variety is typical of a linguistic minority such as the French community in Edmonton (Salerno 1989). Magnan (1983) suggested that linguistic insecurity is a trait commonly identified with the lower-middle class. This would explain why it was easier to recruit university instructors who felt more at ease with the task at hand.

3.3.6 Contact with Anglophones

The initial hypothesis was that the frequency of contact between French native speakers and English speakers would be reflected in the degree of understanding errors made by Anglophones. In other words, the more frequent the contacts the easier it should be to understand errors. Nevertheless, no pattern was revealed in comprehensibility.

With respect to acceptability, a weak but constant tendency is apparent. Subjects having less contact with Anglophones (once a month or less) accept more errors than subjects having more regular contact with Anglophones (once a week to once a day). These results contradict those of Rifkin (1995), where respondents who had greater contact with English speakers found some types of error to be more acceptable than the respondents having less contact with English speakers. One possible interpretation of these results is the effect of "saturation". Judges having frequent contact with Anglophones might have already seen or heard enough errors to have reached a high level of irritation (saturation). On the contrary, subjects with less contact with Anglophones may not have reached a level of irritation that causes saturation of tolerance. Another expianation could be the presence of confounding factors: the variable level of education, place of residence, and frequency of contact with Anglophones, all of which might be interlinked. The relationship between level of education and place of residence has already been acknowledged. A closer look at the data indicates that 27 of the 35 (77%) respondents with the highest

level of education also had frequent contact with anglophones (once a day to once a week) while only 48% of the whole sample had similar contact.

3.3.7 Knowledge of English

The level of knowledge of the English language has no relevance with regard to comprehensibility of error, in contrast with acceptability where statistically significant results were obtained for all variables. Subjects with the greatest knowledge of English showed the least acceptance of errors and conversely, subjects with the least knowledge of English demonstrated the most acceptance. These findings are supported by Gynan's (1984) study in which Spanish native speakers rated interlanguage from English speakers. The degree of experience with English accounted for differences; bilingual judges gave lower ratings to speakers' interlanguage than the other three groups in her study. Eisenstein (1983) also gives degree of bilingualism as a variable affecting language perception.

An analysis was done of the education and knowledge of English variables to find possible confounding factors. Among the most educated group, 37% of respondents indicated the highest level of knowledge of English, while 27% of the total sample had the highest level of knowledge of English. Subjects who are highly educated know English better than other subjects.

3.3.8 Degree of Importance Placed on Knowledge of English Culture

No salient differences were found for comprehensibility or acceptability of errors in relation to the importance of knowing the culture, values, and lifestyle of Anglophones. For ease of statistical calculation the two subjects who did not find it important at all to know the English culture were regrouped with the 37 who believed it was of little importance to know the English culture. The six respondents who "did not know" were eliminated from the calculation. The rest of the subjects were then put into two groups dealing with the importance of knowing the English culture: 58 said yes (*beaucoup*) and 39 said no (*un peu, pas du tout*).

The purpose of this specific question was to measure the degree of empathy judges felt towards the Anglophone community. Brown (1987), after having considered several studies, especially Guiora's (1972), claims that a high degree of empathy of a learner towards the target culture is predictive of success in language learning. The researcher assumed that the reverse could be applicable: a high degree of empathy on the part of a listener towards a learner of his/her language should be predictive of a high degree of acceptability of this learner's errors. No such pattern was found. Either this type of correlation

does not exist, or the question on culture included in the questionnaire was not appropriate to measure degree of empathy.

3.3.9 Knowledge of French Grammar

For twelve of the sixteen variables, there was a tendency (not significant at the .05 level) for subjects who self-evaluated their knowledge of French grammar as very good, to better understand errors made by anglophones. Respondents with a very good knowledge of French grammar also tended to judge errors more severely (in 16 out of 16 cases) and respondents with a weak knowledge of French grammar judged more leniently (in 13 out of 16 cases).

Masny and d'Anglejan (1985) noted that "first language reading competence was significantly related to subjects' ability to correct deviance". Similarly, in the present research, first language grammatical competence was related to subjects' ability to reject deviance.

A possible confounding factor can be detected between the variable levels of education and knowledge of French grammar. In fact, 47% of the most educated respondents have a very good knowledge of French grammar, as opposed to 30% of the entire sample.

3.3.10 Experience in Teaching French

No clear overall pattern emerged for comprehensibility of errors with respect to experience in teaching French. These results are surprising as it was expected that, because of their familiarity with errors, teachers of French would understand errors better than non-teachers. In fact, Eisenstein (1983) claims that a combination of increase in age, education, and teaching experience enhances the listener's ability to understand interlanguage. In this study, the above statement was confirmed partially for age only, the younger subjects being the group that understand the least.

For acceptability judgements, although not statistically significant (not significant at the .05 level), findings suggest that non-teachers are more accepting than teachers. Several investigations explored the effect of second language teaching in acceptability judgements. Magnan (1983), cited in Eisenstein (1983), found no difference between teachers' and non-teachers' judgements. However, most studies observed differences between teachers' and non-teachers' judgements of errors. Ervin (1977), also cited in Eisenstein (1983), found that the most accepting judges were non-teachers "provided that the interlanguage exceeded a minimum threshold level of comprehensibility". Rifkin (1995) observed that non-teachers considered some errors more acceptable than did teachers and vice versa. Okamura (1995) attested that teachers tended to be more critical in their judgements than non-teachers. Hughes and Lascaratou (1982)

found that non-teachers were more lenient overall and that teachers "judged the seriousness of an error on the criterion of basicness of the rule infringed while non-teachers were concerned almost exclusively with the error's effect on the intelligibility of the sentence". Hadden (1991) stated that non-teachers focused more on the meaning of an utterance whereas teachers focused more on grammatical accuracy. Johanson (1978), after reviewing studies by Quirk and Svartvik (1966) and Spencer (1973), found some evidence that linguistically naive judges may be more cohesive in giving judgements of acceptability than non-naive evaluators. The opposite was found in the present study. Teachers were more cohesive; standard deviations were consistently smaller than for non-teachers.

3.4 Analysis of Types of Errors

3.4.1 Most Serious Types of Errors

See Appendix E for complete sentence and their descriptive stastistics.

The most serious erroneous sentences, according to the 103 respondents in this study, are listed in Table 1. These eleven sentences obtained substantially lower scores in comprehensibility than the mean of all 64 erroneous sentences (m = 4.29). Their acceptability scores are also lower than those of the mean of the 64 erroneous sentences (m = 2.40).

Table 1 - Sentences with Lower Scores for Comprehensibility (Accompanied by Acceptability Scores)

Sentence Number	Error Type	C	A
2	Pre IDd	3.89	2.22
30	Pre DI	4.00	2.07
3	Ppr IIds	4.06	2.05
9	Ppr IDd	3.60	2.11
16	Ppr DIds	3.40	1.95
63	Ppr DI	3.93	1.95
74	Ppr DIds	4.05	1.79
20	Pas ID	3.73	2.03
45	Pas ID	3.97	1.95
63	Pas ID	3.93	1.95
76	Pas ID	3.92	1.93

Table 2 shows sentences which obtained low scores for acceptability, scores comparable to those obtained by the most seriously erroneous sentences. On the other hand, these sentences received comprehensibility scores approaching the mean of all erroneous sentences.

Table 2 - Sentences with Scores Lower than 2.2 for Acceptability (Accompanied by Comprehensibility Scores) that Were Not Included in Table 1.

Sentence Number	Error Type	C	A
24	Ppr DIds	4.17	2.10
39	Ppr DIds	4.18	2.10
46	Ppr IIdsd	4.33	2.12
12	Rpr DP	4.42	2.19
54	Rpr DP	4.45	2.17

All four sentences containing an erroneous passive transformation are among the eleven most serious erroneous sentences. Five other incorrect sentences involve personal pronoun use. The figures in Tables 1 and 2 are consistent with those of Table 3 in which passive transformation is the most serious error, followed by errors in personal pronoun use. Errors in relative pronoun and preposition use are rated higher in comprehensibility and acceptability than errors in passive and personal pronoun use.

Table 3 - Hierarchy of Error Types from Least to Most Serious

Error Type	C	A
1. Preposition	4.54	2.75
2. Relative Pronoun	4.40	2.54
3. Personal Pronoun	4.34	2.39
4. Passive Transformation	3.88	1.91
All Error Types	4.29	2.40
Control sentences	4.62	3.96

Error types, subtypes, and individual sentences will be analyzed and compared below.

3.4.2 Errors in Preposition Use

Errors in preposition use are the easiest to understand and the most acceptable to respondents. In all cases, it is a matter of local errors, which is less serious than global errors. In other words, these local errors involve the addition or omission of a preposition in a specific position in a sentence without any movement or transformation. Taylor (1990) claims that small words like articles and short prepositions tend to go unnoticed in fast reading, whether used correctly or incorrectly. In fact, in sentence 26 of the corpus, the typographic error *en* repeated twice was detected by only 38 subjects. Table 4 shows a hierarchy of comprehensibility scores by subtypes of erroneous prepositional use. The acceptability scores are added to show the almost perfect correlation between comprehensibility and acceptability ($r = .89$, $p = < .05$).

Table 4 - Hierarchy of Error Subtypes in Preposition Use

Error Description	Error Subtype	C	A
1. Addition of *pour*	Pre DP	4.72	2.92
2. Omission of *de*	Pre PD	4.63	3.09
3. Omission of *à*	Pre ID	4.56	2.74
4. Addition of *à*	Pre DI	4.44	2.54
5. Omission of *à*	Pre IDd	4.36	2.46
	Mean	4.54	2.75

Errors concerning prepositional objects are the least serious and errors concerning confusion between direct and indirect ojects are among the most serious. The same pattern is observed in the hierarchy of errors in personal pronoun and relative pronoun use. Direct and indirect objects both depend on a transitive verb. Because of this close link, a substitution by one for the other may create confusion. On the other hand, intransitive verbs requiring the prepositions *de* and *pour* belong to a distinct category and the possibility of ambiguity is smaller if substituted with a direct or indirect object.

3.4.2.1 Pre DP Errors

Table 5 shows a hierarchy of comprehensibility of the sentences illustrating the Pre DP subtype of error that occupies the first position in the hierarchy of the preposition category. A similar hierarchy including the same four verbs is given below for errors in relative pronoun use.

Table 5 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Pre DP Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *payer*	50	4.85	3.37
2. *attendre*	29	4.75	2.96
3. *chercher*	23	4.70	2.75
4. *espérer*	1	4.64	2.71
	Mean	4.72	2.92

The first verb in the hierarchy, *payer*, is considered the most comprehensible and the most acceptable. Although the addition of the preposition *pour* is not grammatical in sentence 50 (*Jean a eu de la difficulté à payer pour ses frais de scolarité.*), the Robert dictionary mentions the following structures in the familiar register: "*Je suis payé pour savoir que...*", "*je ne suis pas payé pour ça*" and in the following saying: "*les bons paient pour les méchants*". Therefore the sequence *payer pour* is possible in French and might not have sounded unfamiliar. Furthermore, the use of *payer* as an intransitive verb has been frequently heard by the researcher in the Francophone community of Alberta. This anglicism is not surprising, as the English form "to pay for" reinforces a structure already existing in French.

On the other hand, the verb *espérer* obtained the lowest score for comprehensibility and acceptability. The only documented form of *espérer pour* dates to 1689, used by Racine: *espérer pour une personne* (meaning *attendre* as early as the beginning of the 12th century). Although many features of 17th century French have been maintained in French Canada, the researcher did not record any incidence of that particular utterance.

The verbs *attendre* and *chercher*, which attained a middle position, present common points. Both verbs can have complements introduced by *après* but not by *pour*. According to Robert and Grévisse, *attendre après quelqu'un* means to wait for someone with impatience while *attendre quelqu'un* means to wait for someone. Grévisse mentions that *chercher après quelqu'un* is used in popular or familiar registers. According to Robert, both verbs *attendre* and *chercher* can have a verbal complement introduced by *pour* if they already have a direct object: *attendre quelqu'un / quelque chose pour* + Verb, *chercher quelqu'un / quelque chose* + Verb).

3.4.2.2 Pre PD errors

As shown in Table 4, the subtype of error Pre PD is the second least serious. Table 6 presents the hierarchy of comprehensibility accompanied by acceptability scores for sentences illustrating the PrePD error subtype. The verbs *douter*, *manquer* and *jouer* are also analyzed in the personal pronoun and relative

pronoun analyzes, in error subtypes Ppr PD and Rpr PD. The hierarchies shown in those two tables present similar trends to that observed in Table 6.

Table 6 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Pre PD Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *jouer*	10	4.81	3.30
2. *changer*	68	4.78	3.42
3. *manquer*	52	4.53	2.80
4. *douter*	49	4.44	2.95
	Mean	4.63	3.09

The verb *jouer*, according to the Robert dictionary, can be transitive, as in *jouer la comédie, jouer un air, jouer un pion / une carte, jouer la balle* (tennis), *jouer sa fortune*. This fact might have contributed to the high scores of comprehensibility and acceptability, along with the very low degree of potential ambiguity in interpreting the sentence. Because of the proximity of the words *jouer* and *piano* and their close semantic link, the processing of sentence 10 does not present any difficulty. A comparison between the three sentences of the corpus containing the verb *jouer* will support this observation:

#10 (Pre PD) *Il trouve le temps de jouer le piano même s'il a deux emplois.*

C 4.81 A 3.30

#55 (Ppr PD) - *Est-ce que c'est la guitare classique de Marc? - Oui, et il la joue bien.*

C 4.63 A 3.19

#64 (Rpr PD) *Le violon que Carole joue appartenait à son arrière-grand-père.*

C 4.62 A 3.11

Although sentences 55 and 64 are among the easiest to understand in their category, they are harder to understand than sentence 10. In these two sentences, the verb *jouer* and its complement *guitare* or *violon* are not only distant but in a reverse word order as well (object preceeding the verb).

The verb *changer* is the second least serious error. That verb can also be transitive according to Robert: *changer les draps / ses plans / sa voiture / les rideaux de sa chambre / des dollars pour des francs.* This could have contributed to the high level of comprehensibility and acceptability.

The verbs judged as less comprehensible were *manquer* and *douter*. According to Le Dictionnaire historique de la langue française Le Robert, the verb *manquer* can be transitive (since the 17th century), but is in competition with *rater* (*manquer son train*). The verb *douter* is the most serious error in a transitive construction. Until the 17th century, the verb *douter* had a transitive structure (*douter son courage*), but according to Spillebout (1985) that usage has completely vanished.

3.4.2.3 Pre ID Errors

Table 7 shows the hierarchy of comprehensibility Pre ID errors.

Table 7 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Pre DI Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *jouer*	35	4.83	2.96
2. *assister*	41	4.66	2.84
3. *désobéir*	27	4.62	2.80
4. *échapper*	13	4.21	2.42
	Mean	4.56	2.74

As discussed above, *jouer* can easily be transitive and the semantic link between *jouer* and *hockey* is high, therefore the possibility of ambiguity is low. The most difficult verb to understand is *échapper*. This verb was still used transitively during the classical period. It is still transitive in the expression *laisser échapper un cri*. Le Dictionnaire historique de la langue française acknowledges the transitive use of *échapper*, meaning to drop something or to accidently let something escape (*échapper la balle, le chien*), particularily in Canada. At first sight, the transitive structure *échapper les chiens* should not surprise evaluators. It is not the case, probably because sentence 13 (*Les trafiquants de drogue n'ont pu échapper les chiens policiers.*) is a garden path sentence. For example, the sentence *Les gendarmes ont échappé les chiens policiers*. would have been grammatical and pragmatically and semantically acceptable. The verbs *assister* and *désobéir* obtained very similar scores for comprehensibility and acceptability. The verb *assister* can be transitive (*assister quelqu'un*: to help, to assist someone) or intransitive (*assister à quelque chose*: to attend something). For that reason, the transitive structure of sentence 41 (*assister cette réunion*) might not have sounded so odd to the judges. As for *désobéir*, the transitive structure disappeared during the 17th century, the only vestige being the passive transformation (*être désobéi*). Although many features of 17th century French have been preserved in French Canada, it is unlikely to be the case for *désobéir*.

3.4.2.4 Pre DI Errors

Table 8 gives the hierarchies of comprehensibility for Pre DI errors.

Table 8 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Pre DI Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *prier*	53	4.77	2.94
2. *regarder*	14	4.60	2.72
3. *écouter*	44	4.45	2.45
4. *montrer*	30	4.00	2.07
	Mean	4.44	2.54

Even though the verb *prier* never required an indirect object in its history, it is the easiest verb to understand and the most acceptable is the verb in this hierarchy. The strong semantic link between *prier* and its complement *Dieu* may have facilitated comprehension.

The lowest scores for comprehensibility and acceptability were obtained by the verb *montrer*, with a large difference from its predecessor. The sequence *montrer à* is the translation of the expression "to point at. There is a garden path effect in this sentence, because the following could have been expected: *Même s'il était en retard, un placier a montré à ce touriste des sièges encore libres dans la section bleue.* In other words, the sequence *montrer à* is possible if followed by a human indirect complement that, in turn, is followed by a direct object longer than an indirect object.

The verb *regarder* is second best understood and accepted. In fact, the structure *regarder à* exists in French in the following expressions: *y regarder de près* (to consider something attentively), *y regarder à deux fois avant de se décider* (to mistrust), *regarder à la dépense* (to hesitate before spending).

The verb *écouter* had the second lowest score. In fact, that verb never had in indirect object in its history. In the sequence *écoutent aux électeurs*, the preposition *à* is disguised in the contraction of *à* and *les*, giving *aux*. That sentence might have obtained lower comprehensibility and acceptability scores with the sequence *écoutent à ces électeurs* where the wrongly used preposition *à* is more evident.

The four verbs discussed here are also represented in the erroneous sentences pertaining to personal pronoun use, for which similar results were obtained (see 3.4.3.7).

3.4.2.5 Pre IDd Errors

Table 9 shows the hierarchy of comprehensibility for Pre Idd errors.

Table 9 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Pre IDd Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *suggérer*	7	4.62	2.75
2. *ordonner*	47	4.60	2.63
3. *promettre*	15	4.42	2.38
4. *envoyer*	2	3.89	2.22
	Mean	4.36	2.46

This error subtype was rated the lowest for comprehensibility and acceptability among all subtypes of error in prepositional use. The four verbs in this category are dative verbs, verbs that function differently in French than in English. The English translation of sentence 15, for example, shows an empty preposition (Pe) obtained through a to- deletion rule: The minister promised Pe the citizens to keep essential services.

In French, this deletion rule generates a series of two direct objects in surface structure, which is ungrammatical. In sentences 7, 47 and 15, the first direct object is a noun phrase while the second one is a verbal phrase. In sentence 2, the two direct objects are noun phrases, which may sound more abnormal to a French speaker. This might account for the very low rating in both comprehensibility and acceptablility. Furthermore, because sentence 2 is a garden path sentence, it is more difficult to process than the three other sentences. Indeed, this sentence, could have read: *Le député a envoyé son délégué au centre d'orientation.*

The verbs *suggérer* and *ordonner* are the easiest to understand with *suggérer* being more acceptable. The verb *ordonner* has two different meanings besides the meaning of "to give orders", namely, to put in order and to ordain. This might have created a slight ambiguity. The verb *promettre* is the second most difficult verb to understand and accept. According to the researcher and a few other native speakers, among the verbs *suggérer, ordonner,* and *promettre,* the latter is the most familiar or least formal. Subjects tend to rate more severely an error in a form they consider more simple. According to Chastain (1980), "the commonality and the simplicity of the pattern make it very difficult for native speakers to sympathize " with those errors.

3.4.3 Errors in Personal Pronoun Use

Errors in personal pronoun use are the second most difficult to understand and the second least accepted. Several factors may account for this low performance. Some of the error subtypes analyzed below involve global errors, or multiple errors, or errors involving more complex transformations. In

contrast, all erroneous sentences demonstrating preposition and relative pronoun use involve one single local error, which explains their higher rates of comprehensibility and acceptability. Table 10 shows the hierarchy of comprehensibility for error subtypes in personal pronoun use.

Table 10 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility of Error Subtypes in Personal Pronoun Use

Error Subtype	C	A
1. Ppr PD	4.53	2.81
2. Ppr ID	4.52	2.58
3. Ppr IIdsd	4.51	2.35
4. Ppr IIds	4.34	2.24
5. Ppr IDd	4.30	2.35
6. Ppr DI	4.24	2.43
7. Ppr DIds	3.93	1.97
Mean	4.34	2.39

Before analyzing the results by subtypes of error it is important to examine the types of structures used in the corpus. Table 11 shows the hierarchy of seriousness of errors for those four structures. Then each of these is analyzed with examples extracted from the Ppr ID subtype of error.

Table 11 - Hierarchy of Error for Types of Structure in Personal Pronoun

Type of Structure	C	A
1. Imperative	4.53	2.52
2. Juxtaposition / Coordination	4.49	2.61
3. Question - Answer	4.33	2.42
4. Apposition	4.13	2.16

1. Apposition

As shown in Table 11, sentences containing a noun phrase in apposition were the most difficult to understand. Sentence 67 illustrates the processing involved in reading this type of structure. *Ces clienes, je les ai répondues même si elles étaient très impatientes.* In such a sentence, the reader has to interrupt the processing after the comma, start again until he/she reaches the anaphoric pronoun *les*, go back to retrieve the antecedent, and then process the rest of the sentence. Such a process must hinder comprehension. These appositive structures are also the least accepted. As noted above, this type of structure is used in

familiar register, which is often considered as less acceptable in a judgement task like that of the present study. Indeed, according to Bell's principles of formality and attention, when speakers know they are part of a study, they pay particular attention to their speech and linguistic criteria for correctness becomes more formal (sentences 63, 67, 59, 9, 74, 3, 46).

2. Question-Answer

This type of structure obtained the second lowest scores for comprehensibility and acceptability. In sentences 66, 58, 55, 28, 16, 77, 33, questions (containing the antecedent) and answers (containing the anaphora) are visually disjointed (on two separate lines). This creates a cross-clause anaphoric use of a pronoun by opposition to an intra-clause anaphoric use. This might contribute to creating an effect of greater referential distance, hence causing more ambiguity.

3. Juxtaposition or Coordination

Sentences representing this category are juxtaposed or coordinated with the conjunction *et*. These coordinated or juxtaposed sentences are not seperated as in the previous category (involving a question and an answer), therefore the referential distance seems psychologically lesser even if it is not lesser in number of syllables. Sentence 22 illustrates this point.

Ces enfants sont très talentueux. C'est Josée
qui les apprend à patiner.

Because of short differential distance, processing is easier for sentences in this category than in the previous one. These sentences obtained the highest rating for acceptability, perhaps because of their high level of naturalness compared to the question-answer and apposition structures (sentences 57, 22, 70, 18, 24, 62, 11).

4. Imperative

This type of construction was the easiest to understand and the second most acceptable. Sentence 17 illustrates this point. *Ton assistant a des problèmes de gestion.*
Téléphone-le tout de suite.

As for the preceding category, the juxtaposition of two sentences seems easy to process. In the second sentence, the canonical order verb-object (as opposed to the reverse order object-verb in the other three categories) may have contributed to the ease of processing (sentences 73, 17, 37, 40, 39, 75, 25).

3.4.3.1 Ppr PD Errors

Table 12 shows the hierarchy of scores obtained for Ppr PD errors.

Table 12 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Ppr PD Errors

Type of Structure	Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. Coordination	*discuter*	70	4.67	3.03
2. Question-Answer	*jouer*	55	4.63	3.19
3. Imperative	*douter*	37	4.63	2.87
4. Apposition	*manquer*	59	4.32	2.34
		Mean	4.53	2.81

This category of error is the easiest to understand and the most acceptable. In this category the prepositional object *en* was substituted by a direct object. Such an error does not seem to hinder communication perhaps because francophones themselves tend to err in using the pronoun *en*. In Maurais's (1985) survey on written French in college students of Quebec, errors using *en* were the tenth most serious errors and the most serious error in personal pronoun use. In fact, results support that statement. Quebecers accept this error much more than the French.

As explained above, *discuter* may be transitive in the sense of "examine by a debate" as opposed to *discuter de* which signifies "talk with others by exchanging ideas". That second meaning is more acceptable pragmatically, as telespectators of soap operas will more likely exchange ideas on them rather than debating the pros and cons. The verb *manquer* obtained the lowest scores for comprehensibility and acceptability because, as explained above, the apposition structure is the hardest to process. The verbs *jouer* and *douter* obtained similar scores for comprehensibility but *douter* was less acceptable. The referential distance is greater in the case of *douter* (11 syllables) than in the case of *jouer* (8 syllables), therefore affecting ease of processing. For the verb *douter*, there is probably also an ambiguity because there are three noun phrases anteposed to the anaphora *la* (*L'honnêteté de notre candidat est sans reproche. Ne la doutez pas.*).

3.4.3.2 Ppr ID Errors

Table 13 displays the hierarchy of comprehensibility for verbs used in the Ppr ID type of error.

Table 13 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Ppr ID Errors

Type of Structure	Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. Imperative	*téléphoner*	17	4.66	2.97
2. Juxtaposition	*apprendre*	22	4.60	2.58
3. Question/Answer	*plaire*	58	4.46	2.46
4. Apposition	*répondre*	67	4.43	2.32
		Mean	4.52	2.58

The most comprehensible and most acceptable verb is *téléphoner*. The transitive indirect verb *téléphoner* (to phone) is often substituted for *appeler* (to call). It is not uncommon for Francophones to interchange them (*téléphoner quelqu'un / appeler à quelqu'un*) in oral speech. On the other hand, the verb *répondre* scored the lowest for both comprehensibility and acceptability because, as mentionned above, an antecedent in apposition is hard to process. The verb *apprendre* is a less serious error than the verb *plaire*. This is probably because of the type of structure in which they are found. The verb *apprendre* is in a juxtaposed structure and the verb *plaire* is in a question-answer structure, which as previously explained is more difficult to process.

3.4.3.3 Ppr IIdsd errors

Table 14 gives a comprehensibility hierarchy for Ppr IIdsd errors.

Table 14 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Ppr IIdsd Errors

Type of Structure	Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. Question/Answer	*demander*	33	4.66	2.51
2. Imperative	*donner*	25	4.60	2.43
3. Juxtaposition	*permettre*	11	4.53	2.44
4. Apposition	*dire*	46	4.33	2.12
		Mean	4.51	2.35

The least comprehensible and acceptable verb is *dire*. In that sentence, the antecedent is in an apposition which again, complicates processing. In this hierarchy, the order of seriousness of error is not in agreement with the general order described previously. The verb *permettre* which is in a juxtaposed structure should be the easiest structure to understand. The third position obtained here might be due to the great referential distance (11 syllables).

3.4.3.4 Ppr IIds Errors

Table 15 provides a hierarchy of comprehensibility of Ppr IIDds errors.

Table 15 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Ppr IIDds Errors

Type of Structure	Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. Imperative	*téléphoner*	75	4.67	2.55
2. Question/Answer	*plaire*	77	4.40	2.20
3. Juxtaposition	*enseigner*	62	4.38	2.28
4. Apposition	*répondre*	3	4.06	2.05
		Mean	4.34	2.24

In comparing these results with those for Ppr ID errors (using the same four verbs), it appears that the verbs *répondre* and *téléphoner* are in the same positions for the same reasons. The verbs *plaire* and *enseigner* obtained very similar scores in middle position. As mentionned above, both Ppr ID and Ppr IIds use the same verbs (*téléphoner, plaire, répondre, enseigner / apprendre*). In comparing their respective means for comprehensibility and acceptability, it is obvious that the Ppr ID type of error is easier to understand and more acceptable. Sentences 3 and 67 illustrate the structures in question.

#3 (Ppr IIds) *Tes soeurs, tu devrais répondre à elles pour éviter les chicanes de famille.*

#67 (Ppr ID) *Ces clientes, je les ai répondues même si elles étaient très impatientes.*

Because *répondre* is a transitive indirect verb, it should be expected that the least serious error is the use of an indirect object (*répondre à elles*) rather than a direct object (*je les ai répondues*). This is not the case maybe because of the number of transformations included in the sentence. A simple substitution (*leur = > les* in sentence 67) may be easier to process than a substitution and an addition (*leur = > à elles* in sentence 3). Although the addition of the preposition *à* does not alter verb transitivity, it seems to hinder processing of that sentence.

3.4.3.5 Ppr IDd Errors

Table 16 shows the hierarchy of comprehensibility of Ppr IIds errors.

Table 16 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Ppr IIds Errors

Type of Structure	Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. Imperative	*donner*	40	4.56	2.41
2. Juxtaposition	*permettre*	18	4.54	2.56
3. Question/Answer	*demander*	28	4.50	2.35
4. Apposition	*dire*	9	3.60	2.11
		Mean	4.30	2.35

Like in previous hierarchies, the sentence including an apposition is judged as the most serious error. The other three verbs have very similar comprehensibility scores with the verb *permettre* being more acceptable. The verb *permettre* in the Ppr IIdsd hierarchy was the second least comprehensible. The referential distance in those two sentences might account for the difference in comprehensibility. In sentence 18 (Ppr IDd), the referential distance is 6 syllables, while it is 11 syllables for sentence 11 (Ppr IIdsd). The greater the referential distance, the harder it is to process. After contrasting sentences 46 (Ppr IIdsd) and 9 (Ppr IDd) it is logical to find a higher level of comprehensibility for a structure like *j'ai déjà dit à lui* than *je le dis*. The verb *dire* requires an indirect object. Although *dire à lui* is incorrect, *lui* is still an indirect object as opposed to *le* which is a direct object. Furthermore, a number of French indirect transitive verbs require the disjunctive form of the indirect object when the object is human (*penser à lui, rêver à lui, tenir à lui*). Contrary to the previous subtype of error, transitivity seems to predominate over complexity of transformations.

3.4.3.6 Ppr DI errors

Table 17 illustrates the comprehensibility hierarchy for Ppr DI Errors.

Table 17 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Ppr DI Errors

Type of Structure	Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. deictic pronoun	*prier*	57	4.56	3.26
2. imperative	*regarder*	73	4.44	2.31
3. question/answer	*montrer*	66	4.25	2.27
4. apposition	*écouter*	63	3.93	1.95
		Mean	4.24	2.43

This hierarchy follows the pattern described above. Sentence 63, which displays an appositive structure, is the most serious error. The two middle sentences with the verbs *regarder* and *montrer* are a repetition of the pattern in the category of erroneous use of personal pronoun. As for sentence 57, it contains two juxtaposed clauses with the deictic pronoun *lui*. There is no antecedent in the sentence as such, but pragmatics contribute to facilitate comprehensibility.

3.4.3.7 Ppr DIds Errors

Table 18 shows the hierarchy of comprehensibility for Ppr Dids errors.

Table 18 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Ppr DIds Errors

Type of Structure	Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. Imperative	*regarder*	39	4.18	2.10
2. Coordination	*prier*	24	4.17	2.10
3. Apposition	*écouter*	74	4.05	1.79
4. Question/Answer	*montrer*	16	3.40	1.95
		Mean	3.93	1.97

This hierarchy breaks the pattern. Sentence 74, which includes an apposition, did not score lowest for comprehensibility and acceptibility. Sentence 16 was the most incomprehensible.

- *Où sont les préposés aux bagages?*
- *Regarde, l'agent montre à eux maintenant.*

In this sentence the anophoric pronoun *eux* is preceded by two noun phrases, which creates an ambiguity. Furthermore, the two head nouns have the same gender and number and both are semantically possible objects of the verb *montrer*. Sentences with imperative and coordination equally represent the least serious error.

This subtype of error (Ppr DIds) obtained a lesser score than the subtype Ppr DI for comprehensibility and acceptability. Extracts from sentences 73 and 39 illustrate this.

#73 Ppr DI *Regarde-leur*

#39 Ppr DIds *Regarde à elle*

The verb *regarder* is a transitive direct verb. In both structures, the direct object is replaced by an indirect object. The conjunctive form of the indirect object (*leur*) is a less serious error than the disjunctive form (*à elle*). The correct form is *Regarde-les / Regarde-la*. The addition of the preposition *à* seems to add to the level of difficulty in comprehensibility and acceptability. In sentence 39, there is not only a substitution (*la = > elle*) but also an addition (0 = > *à*).

3.4.4 Errors in Relative Pronoun Use

Errors related to relative pronoun use are the second easiest errors to understand and the second most acceptable. Contrary to personal pronoun and preposition hierarchies, this hierarchy is peculiar. The correlation is not positive between comprehensibility and acceptability. Table 19 shows the comprehensibility hierarchy for error subtypes in relative pronoun use.

Table 19 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility of Error Types in Relative Pronoun Use

Error Type	C	A
1. Rpr DP	4.49	2.33
2. Rpr ID	4.41	2.56
3. Rpr PD	4.38	2.86
Mean	4.43	2.58

The simpler the pattern, the more severely native speakers judge an error (Chastain 1980). The Rpr DP subtype of error is the easiest to understand, has the easiest structure, and was most easily avoided. Therefore, raters may have judged this type of error more strictly.

3.4.4.1 Rpr DP Errors

The Rpr DP subtype of error obtained the highest score for comprehensibility but the lowest for acceptability. Table 20 shows the comprehensibility hierarchy for Rpr DP errors.

Table 20 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Rpr DP Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *payer*	61	4.56	2.56
2. *chercher*	69	4.52	2.38
3. *espérer*	54	4.45	2.17
4. *attendre*	12	4.42	2.19
	Mean	4.44	2.30

In this subtype of error there is no substitution of relative pronoun. Sentence 61 and its English translation illustrate this.

Le meuble que j'ai payé pour n'a pas encore été livré.

'The piece of furniture I paid for has not been delivered yet.'

The relative pronoun *que* is correct as far as form and position are concerned. The preposition *pour* is added to the verb, calquing the English structure "to pay for". The verb *payer* in French requires a direct object but requires a prepositional object in English. Furthermore, in English, the preposition "for" can be stranded by a movement rule. In French, even if a verb requires a preposition (*voter pour*), preposition stranding is not allowed, as it is in English.

* *Qui a-t-elle voté pour?*

It appears as though the addition of the preposition *pour* did not interfere with the comprehensibility but created some irritation among the judges.

This hierarchy of errors can be compared with the hierarchy of Pre DP errors which contained the same four verbs. The Pre DP subtype of error obtained higher scores than the Rpr DP subtype of error for both comprehensibility and acceptability. These results are in agreement with those of the types of errors: erroneous sentences with prepositions also obtained higher scores for comprehensibility and acceptability than sentences with relative pronouns. In both hierarchies, the verb *payer* is the most understood and accepted, while the other three do not follow any specific pattern.

3.4.4.2 Rpr ID Errors

Table 21 shows the comprehensibility hierarchy for Rpr ID errors.

Table 21 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Rpr ID Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *ressembler*	34	4.61	2.60
2. *pardonner*	38	4.59	2.83
3. *résister*	56	4.23	2.37
4. *survivre*	5	4.20	2.44
	Mean	4.37	2.52

The subtype of error Rpr ID is in middle position in terms of comprehensibility and acceptability. This type of error consists of a substitution of the relative pronoun and the omission of the preposition *à*. In sentence 56, the relative pronoun *à laquelle* was substituted by *que*. This structure, *L'attaque que ces réfugiés ont résisté a été terrible.*, is calquing the English structure 'The attack that those refugees resisted was terrible.'. The misuse of *que* represents a simplification because *à laquelle* is a more complex structure than *que*. Indeed, agreement for gender and number is compulsory for *lequel* as well as its contractions (*à + lequel = > auquel* etc.). The French linguist Walter (1988) claims that only very cultured speakers use *lequel* and its variants.

3.4.4.3 Rpr PD Errors

The subtype of error Rpr PD is the least comprehensible and the most acceptable. The transformation performed here is the substitution of the relative pronoun *dont* for the relative pronoun *que*. Here again, it is a matter of a calque of the English "that" and is therefore a simplification. The verb used requires a prepositional object introduced by *de* (*jouer de, changer de, douter de, manquer de*). The absence of *de* may hinder comprehensibility. The most logical form would be as in sentence 21: *L'employé de qui il doute*, although the prescribed form is *dont*. The subtype of error Rpr PD is the most acceptable to judges. As explained above, the relative pronoun *dont* is becoming rare and is reduced to very scholarly speakers and may often even lead to hypercorrection: *c'est de lui dont je parle.* Furthermore, a survey on written French in colleges of Quebec (Maurais 1985) revealed that the most frequent error was the misuse of *dont*. Results show that the French rejected the omission of *dont* more than the other groups. Montrealers rejected that error more than other groups. Subjects who had a better knowledge of French grammar reject it the most. Youngest subjects accepted it the most. Table 22 gives the hierarchy of comprehensibility for Rpr ID errors.

Table 2 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Rpr PD Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *jouer*	64	4.62	3.11
2. *changer*	4	4.36	3.10
3. *douter*	21	4.35	2.89
4. *manquer*	42	4.18	2.33
	Mean	4.38	2.81

3.4.5 Errors in Passive Use

Table 23 shows the hierarchy for comprehensibility for Pas ID Errors. These errors are the most serious of the entire corpus.

Table 23 - Hierarchy of Comprehensibility for Pas ID Errors

Verb Used	Sentence Number	C	A
1. *dire*	78	4.00	1.83
2. *expliquer*	45	3.97	1.95
3. *prêter*	76	3.92	1.93
4. *envoyer*	20	3.73	2.03
	Mean	3.88	1.91

There is a tendency for the most comprehensible sentences to be less acceptable. Even though subjects understand the content of the message, they may be irritated by its form. The most difficult sentence to process is a garden path sentence. *Le gérant de la banque a été envoyé le dossier au complet.* There is an interruption in parsing after the verb. In fact, that sentence could have read: *Le gérant de la banque a été envoyé au congrès national.* Passive sentences undergo more transformations than active negative or interrogative sentences for instance. Therefore, even if passive sentences were grammatical in the corpus they might have been judged less acceptable than their active counterparts, because of the complexity of processing, according to the DTC (Derivational Theory of Complexity). Errors in passive are global errors because they affect the overall sentence organization. That explains why low scores were obtained for both comprehensibility and acceptability. In fact, it is the only type of error that scored low for comprehensibility.

Chapter 4

CONCLUSION

4.1 Summary and Discussion

The primary goal of this study was to determine how French native speakers react to errors made by Anglophones learning French.

The four main questions stated in the introduction were:

1) What effect do different errors have on the comprehensibility of utterances produced by Anglophones learning French?

2) What effect do different errors have on the acceptability of utterances produced by Anglophones learning French?

3) Is there a correlation between errors' effects on comprehensibility and on acceptability?

4) Is there any difference in native speakers' comprehensibility and acceptability, according to gender, age, level of education, place of origin, place of residence, frequency of contact with Anglophones, knowledge of English, attitude towards English culture, knowledge of French grammar, and experience in teaching French.

1) Four types of errors related to verb transitivity were selected for the study (see Table 3). The mean comprehensibility for erroneous sentences was 4.29 (prepositions 4.54, relative pronouns 4.41, personal pronouns 4.34, passive 3.88). The definition of comprehensibility chosen for this thesis is the degree to which the interlocutor understands what is said or written. Based on this definition, it is possible to conclude that erroneous sentences studied achieved comprehensibility because French native speakers understood them despite their deviant nature. As stated by Chastain (1980), "given the redundancy in the linguistic system, native speakers can understand much non-native speech".

Errors on passive use obtained the lowest score for comprehensibility (m = 3.88), but still show a high level of comprehensibility considering the severity of the error. Furthermore, the mean for comprehensibility of erroneous sentences is not drastically different from that obtained for error-free sentences (m = 4.62). The speakers of these utterances produced comprehensible output and therefore have reached communicative competence.

Subjects in Edmonton and in Montreal, two areas where English is present, obtained comprehensibility scores of 4.25 and 4.03 respectively. On the other hand, subjects living in Quebec

outside of Montreal, in an exclusively French environment, obtained an average of 3.62. This result leads one to believe that the more "foreign" the error is, the less comprehensible it is.

"Once a reasonable level of comprehensibility has been attained, the question of irritation becomes relevant" (Albrechtsen 1980). Although comprehensibility is the most important goal for non-native speakers, negative reactions to their utterances must also be considered as a potential hinderance to the communication process.

2) Acceptability scores shown in Table 3 are much lower than comprehensibility scores. The definition of acceptability selected for this thesis related to naturalness of sentences and absence of a bizarre or exotic aspect. Based on this definition, erroneous sentences achieved acceptability at a low level. The mean for acceptability of erroneous sentences is 2.40 as opposed to 3.96 for error-free sentences. There is a clear indication of intolerance. In a real conversation, acceptability ratings could be higher. "Compensation for lack of grammatical accuracy may not produce negative reactions if the desire and urgency to communicate are evident" (Galloway 1980).

3) Comprehensibility and acceptability hierarchies are positively correlated.

4) Several sociolinguistic factors had an effect on acceptability judgements. The ten factors are enumerated below, along with a brief summary of findings for each.

1. Gender: females tended to be more tolerant than males
2. Age: the younger group (18 to 25 years old) was the most accepting even though the subjects in this group tended to understand utterances the least
3. Level of education: the most educated group (18 years or more) was the most severe, while the least educated group was the most lenient
4. Place of origin: subjects born in France were the most intolerant while those born in Quebec were the least intolerant
5. Place of residence: subjects from Montreal tended to best understand errors but were least accepting
6. Frequency of contact with anglophones: no effect was found
7. Knowledge of English: subjects with a better knowledge of English showed less acceptance, and conversely subjects with less knowledge of English were more accepting
8. Importance of knowing English culture: no effect was found
9. Knowledge of French grammar: respondents with better knowledge of French tended to better understand errors and to judge them more severely than subjects with a weak knowledge of French grammar
10. Experience teaching French: teachers tended to be more severe than non-teachers.

As it was mentionned in the analysis of results, there is a possibility of confounding factors involving level of education with several other variables: place of residence, gender, knowledge of English, and knowledge of French grammar. It seems that the leading variable is level of education. One could assume that very educated subjects have a good knowledge of French grammar and of the English language. As for place of residence, due to recruitment strategies (see section 3.3.5), respondents from Montreal were very educated. In addition, male subjects were more educated than female subjects. Due to the difficulty in recruiting male subjects in general, it could be hypothesized that males who accepted completing the task were more educated and self-confident about their linguistic competence.

Although control sentences were not part of the initial hypotheses being tested, interesting aspects of language processing were drawn from them.

A limited number of errors in a specific subject area were investigated in this study. More research is needed to gain a better understanding of the field of error analysis in phonology, grammar, lexicon, etc. in order to establish hierarchies and patterns according to native speakers' reactions. Native speakers' reactions to errors committed by learners of a target language offer an insight into psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, historical linguistics, and into the realm of human cognition.

4.2 Pedagogical Implications

The ultimate goal of second language learning is to communicate effectively with native speakers of a target language. Errors may not hinder comprehension but may affect communication because of the irritation and distraction they cause.

Results obtained from native speakers' reactions to errors made by language learners may be used to establish hierarchies of errors. Errors receiving low scores for comprehensibility should have priority over errors receiving low scores for acceptability, which should in turn have priority over errors with higher scores in comprehensibility and acceptability.

In applying the concept of the hierarchy of error priorities to this study, the erroneous passivization of an indirect object should receive the most attention because it is a global error and interferes with communication. Also, it is a commonly committed error for it is easy to calque the English form.

Errors in personal pronoun use vary in gravity according to the number and degree of complexity of transformations. Personal pronoun errors with the lower scores might be more global errors than other errors and should be dealt with seriously.

Errors in relative pronoun use do not trigger very negative reactions on the part of the native speaker. Several errors in the corpus are in fact also made by some Francophones.

This leads to the concept of pedagogical norm. Tarone (1979), cited in Valdman (1989), hypothesized that the "learner's interlanguage constitutes a continuum analogous to the Labovian vernacular-standard one." Valdam (1989) rejects the traditional prescriptive norms in favor of more flexible continua. He adds that a pedagogical norm must reflect the linguistic behaviour of native speakers and should not be static.

In the analysis of control sentences (section 3.2.1) and in the analysis of Rpr PD subtype of error (section 3.4.4.3), it was mentionned that many francophones use *que* rather than *dont*. Learners of French should be aware that, although *que* is not the prescribed form, it is a variant form they will likely hear.

Errors in prepostion use are the least irritating to native speakers. Therefore, teaching and learning of prepositions should not be emphasized. Prepositions are not rule-governed like personal pronouns, relative pronouns and passive. For this reason, prepositon use is less teachable. It can be acquired with exposure to the language.

During the last decade, emphasis has been on communicative competence rather than on linguistic competence. It is still being debated as to where to focus: on form or on function. Ensz (1982) claims that "emphasis on correct production of the foreign language, and especially grammatical correctness, is not incompatible with the encouragement of the spontaneous communications of ideas in the foreign language".

According to Herron (1981), "correcting oral errors improves second language learners' proficiency more than if their errors remain uncorrected" and "correcting every student error is counter-productive to learning a foreign language". It is believed that over-correction may be threatening or embarassing for students. She claims that students prefer to communicate successfully rather than perfectly. Nemni et al. (1993), on the other hand, studied error correction from the learner's point of view and found that 80% of learners believe that linguistic correction is very important. These learners would like teachers to correct not only errors impeding communication but all phonological, grammatical, and lexical errors.

Students in Nemni's (1993) study would like to be corrected immediately after making an error. This could be accomplished either by having the teacher provide the proper form or by encouraging student self-correction. Furthermore, 81% of the learners in Nemni's (1993) study claim that error correction does not trigger frustration.

In a teaching situation, one should avoid having a radical position at either end of the correction spectrum. Aiming to eliminate errors altogether is as drastic a measure as avoiding corrections. To favor communicative competence to the detriment of linguistic competence is likely to create a fossilized interlanguage, as occurs among French immersion students (Lister 1987). Germain (1993) provides the term "classolect" (*classolecte*) to describe the dialect common to French immersion students.

Several studies mentioned above demonstrated that teachers are less tolerant to errors than non-teachers. With this in mind, teachers should consult research done in the area of error judgement, and

should not attempt to correct all errors but rather a selection of errors according to an appropriate hierarchy. As suggested by Galloway (1980), "teachers should sacrifice some structure variety, idiomatic subtleties and low-frequency terms" in order to concentrate on forms that could potentially be disrupters in communication. With this view of error correction, a teacher should use a hierarchy of error in correcting oral production, in marking and grading written production, in preparing teaching materials, and in designing curricula. It should also be a concrete part of teacher training. Delisle (1982) claims that error hierarchies will provide teachers "with a basis for choosing and evaluating their teaching emphases".

4.3 Recommendations for Future Research

4.3.1 Subjects

In this study, respondents were not evenly distributed among groups due to difficulties in recruitment in Edmonton and because of the delegation of assistants in Quebec. Although the front page of the questionnaire was design to be self-explanatory, there might have been an administrator effect if subjects had heard different instructions from different administrators. Monetary and time constraints also added to the difficulty of finding subjects.

Because subjects were not supervised while performing the task, there is no assurance that discussion among subjects did not occur. Adding instructions for subjects to fill out the questionnaire without consultation may have helped avoid this.

In order to avoid these difficulties in future studies, the researcher would distribute the questionnaire in person to respondents and would provide them with consistent explanations and supervision. However, this would require significant financial support.

A completely randomly selected sample would be preferable.

4.3.2 Methodology

In a further study involving a large number of French teachers, it would be interesting to verify if teaching experience is a significant factor in the judgement of interlanguage.

An investigation including near-native speakers as judges might show interesting results. Near-native speakers are non-native speakers who attain a high level of proficiency. The results of such study could then be compared to results obtained by McCretton and Rider (1993), Fayer and Krasinski (1987) and Galloway (1980), where non-native speakers rated more severely than native speakers. It is

hypothesized that they would be more severe than the average non-native speakers because they would have mastered the language and would probably have high expectations.

A respondent who is a researcher suggested that the level of the learners' knowledge of French should have been mentionned in the questionnaire, or that it should have been noted that sentences were extracted from compositions.

Recording the time required to accomplish the task might have shown interesting results. According to Chaudron (1982), reaction time is a measure of acceptability. The most important rule infringements would hence require less deliberation.

A second pilot study could have been beneficial in eliminating imperfections in the composition of the sentences.

To verify the degree of comprehensibility of interlanguage, Connors (1993), Martin (1978), and Khalil (1985) claim that grammaticality judgement must be accompanied by interpretation. Subjects would then be asked to restate each sentence according to what they thought the speaker intended to say.

A forced choice could be added to the rating task. Subjects would have to choose the "best" sentence within a pair of sentences. These sentences would be the same as those used in the corpus, but by pairing them, a forced choice would be ensured. This would therefore consolidate results.

Sentences could be presented twice, once for comprehensibility judgements and once for acceptability judgements. This method would avoid the development of a pattern of automatic assignment of low acceptability scores where comprehensibility scores are low.

Unfortunately, the latter three suggestions would make the time required to complete the task beyond the time that the average subject is willing to offer.

4.3.3 Corpus

The section of the corpus dealing with personal pronouns included four different structures: apposition, question-answer, juxtaposition or coordination, and imperative. Although these constructions triggered interesting results at the level of language processing, they seemed to have affected the judgement of error.

In the corpus of errors on relative pronoun use, one common type of error that was not included in this study could have shown significant results: the omission of the relative pronoun. Sentence 38 for example, could have been *L'ennemi il a pardonné est ensuite devenu un ami.* which is a calque of the English sentence 'The ennemy he forgave then became a friend'. It is hypothesized that such an error would have obtained low scores in both comprehensibility and acceptability. However, this type of error was excluded from the corpus because the focus of the study was on transitivity. This error, involving the

omission of relative pronouns, is not a misuse of transitivity. Whether the relative pronoun appears or not in the English sentence is not a phenomenon related to transitivity but rather to a deletion rule allowed in English.

The researcher noted that a concrete verb accompanied by a concrete object (#10 *jouer le piano*) tends to be more accepted than a more abstract construction (#1 *espère pour un changement*). This hypothesis could be verified by controlling the degree of abstactness / concreteness in sentences.

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APPENDIX A
Descriptive Statistics of Subjects

1. Number of Subjects Classified by Gender

Gender	
Male	37
Female	66

2. Number of Subjects Classified by Age

Age Class	
18-25	14
26-39	31
40-55	45
56+	13

3. Number of Subjects Classified by Level of Education

Number of Years	
0-12	28
13-17	40
18+	35

4. Number of Subjects Classified by Place of Origin

Place	
Canada (excluding Quebec)	15
Quebec	77
France	11

5. Number of Subjects Classified by Residence

Place	
Edmonton	20
Montreal	34
Quebec Outside of Montreal	49

6. Number of Subjects Classified by the Frequency of their Contact With Anglophones

Frequency of Contact	
Every Day	40
About Once a Week	8
About Once a Month	13
Never/ Rarely	38
Others	4

7. Number of Subjects Classified by their Knowledge of English

Knowledge of English	
Do not Understand / Do Not Speak	1
Understand Little / Do Not Speak	28
Understand Well / Speak Little	29
Understand Well / Speak Well	17
Understand Very Well / Speak Very Well	28

8. Number of Subjects Classified by their Opinion of the Importance of Knowing the Values, Culture, and Lifestyle of Anglophones

Importance	
Not at All	2
A Little	37
A Lot	58
Do Not Know/ Not Applicable	6

9. Number of Subjects Classified by their Knowledge of French Grammar

Knowledge	
Very Good	31
Good	60
Weak	12
Poor	0

10. Number of Subjects Classified by their Experience in Teaching French or in French to Anglophones

Experience	
Yes	19
No	84

APPENDIX B
Questionnaire and Pertinent English Translations

An English translation of the letter of instruction and of the questions requesting personal information are provided, along with the French questionnaire that was sent to the subjects of this study.

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Thank you for participating in this research in the field of Applied Linguistics. The purpose of this study is to determine which errors made by Anglophones learning French are the most serious. All information provided in completing this questionnaire shall remain strictly confidential and will be used solely for analytical purposes. The amount of time required to complete the task is approximately 25 minutes.

You are to read sentences stated by Anglophones. Many of these sentences contain errors. We ask that you judge these sentences for their levels of comprehensibility and acceptability, by circling the appropriate number on the scales shown below:

incomprehensible	1 2 3 4 5	perfectly comprehensible
totally unacceptable	1 2 3 4 5	perfectly acceptable

Example: Elle aime_chocolat.
The sentence should have read: Elle aime le chocolat. [She likes chocolate.]

If, despite the error, you perfectly understand what the student intended to say, circle 5. If you do not understand at all, circle 1. If you are unsure of understanding, circle 2,3 or 4 according to your degree of comprehensibility (on the first line). On the second line, you have a scale of acceptability. On this scale, you must decide if you consider the sentence to be acceptable in French. Even if you understand the sentence perfectly, it is possible that it is not normal or natural, that it does not seem to be in "proper" French, and hence that is does not seem acceptable. You then circle the appropriate number on the second line, according to your intuition. **It is important to give your first impression without seeking grammatical reasoning and also to avoid changing your answers once given.** We also ask that you underline the erroneous part(s) of the sentence or, in the case of an omission, that you underline the place where the word should have been (as in the example above).

We now have a number of personal questions that will assist in the interpretation of results.

Amount of time required to fill out the questionnaire on error judgement: _____minutes.

1. Sex: _____ F _____ M

2. Age: _____

3. Number of years of schooling completed: _____

   Last degree obtained _____

   Trade / profession _____

4. Where is your place of origin?

   _____ Quebec

   _____ Canada (outside of Quebec)

   _____ France

   _____ other (specify: _____)

5. Where is your current place of residence?

   _____ Montreal region

   _____ other region of Quebec

   _____ Western Canada

6. How frequently are you in contact with Anglophones?

   a _____ every day

   b _____ about once a week

   c _____ about once a month

   d _____ never / rarely

   e _____ other (specify: _____)

7. How do you qualify your knowledge of the English language?

   a _____ do not understand / do not speak

   b _____ understand a little / do not speak

   c _____ understand well / speak a little

   d _____ understand well / speak well

   e _____ understand very well / speak very well

8. Is it important for a Francophone living in Canada (including Quebec) to be familiar with the values, culture and lifestyle of Anglophones?

_____ not at all

_____ a little

_____ a lot

_____ do not know / not applicable

9. How do you qualify your knowledge of French grammar?

_____ very good

_____ good

_____ weak

_____ poor

10. Do you have experience in teaching French as a second language or in teaching (in French) other subjects, to Anglophones?

_____ no

_____ yes

If yes, specify the number of years at each of the these levels.

_____ primary school

_____ secondary school

_____ university

_____ other (specify: _____)

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Merci de bien vouloir participer à cette recherche en linguistique appliquée. Le but particulier de l'investigation est de déterminer quelles erreurs commises par des anglophones apprenant le français sont les plus sérieuses. Les renseignements contenus dans ce questionnaire sont strictement confidentiels et seront utilisés à des fins d'analyse statistique uniquement. Le temps requis pour compléter la tâche est d'environ 25 minutes.

Vous allez lire des phrases énoncées par des anglophones. Beaucoup de ces phrases contiennent des erreurs. Nous vous demandons de juger ces phrases aux niveaux de la compréhensibilité et de l'acceptabilité en encerclant le nombre approprié sur les échelles suivantes:

impossible à comprendre	1 2 3 4 5	parfaitement compréhensible
totalement inacceptable	1 2 3 4 5	parfaitement acceptable

Exemple: Elle aime chocolat. La phrase aurait dû être: Elle aime le chocolat.

Si vous comprenez parfaitement ce que l'étudiant a voulu dire, malgré l'erreur, vous encerclez 5. Si vous ne comprenez pas du tout, vous encerclez 1. Si vous n'êtes pas sûr(e) de comprendre, vous encerclez 2,3 ou 4 selon votre degré de compréhension (sur la première ligne). Sur la deuxième ligne, vous avez une échelle d'acceptabilité. Il s'agit ici de décider si vous trouvez cette phrase acceptable en français. Même si vous comprenez parfaitement la phrase il se peut qu'elle ne soit pas normale ou naturelle, qu'elle ne vous semble pas en "bon" français, en d'autres mots qu'elle ne vous semble pas acceptable. Vous encerclez alors le numéro approprié sur la deuxième ligne, selon votre intuition. **Il est important de donner votre première impression sans chercher à trouver des raisons grammaticales et de ne pas changer une réponse déjà donnée.** Nous vous demandons également de souligner la/les partie(s) erronée(s) dans la phrase ou, dans le cas d'un oubli, de souligner l'endroit où le mot aurait dû être placé (comme dans l'exemple ci-haut).

Nous avons maintenant des questions d'ordre personnel pour interpréter les résultats.

Temps requis pour remplir le questionnaire de jugement d'erreurs: _____ minutes.

1. Sexe: _____ F_____ M

2. Age: _____

3. Nombre d'années de scolarité complétées: _____

   Dernier diplôme obtenu: _____

   Métier / profession: _____

4. Quel est votre lieu d'origine?

   _____ Québec

   _____ Canada (hors Québec)

   _____ France

   _____ autre (spécifiez: _____)

5. Quel est votre lieu de résidence actuel?

   _____ région de Montréal

   _____ autre région du Québec

   _____ Ouest canadien

6. Quelle est la fréquence de vos contacts avec des anglophones?

   a _____ tous les jours

   b _____ environ 1 fois par semaine

   c _____ environ 1 fois par mois

   d _____ aucun / rare contact

   e _____ autre (spécifiez: _____)

7. Comment qualifiez-vous votre connaissance de l'anglais?

   a _____ ne comprends pas / ne parle pas

   b _____ comprends un peu / ne parle pas

   c _____ comprends bien / parle un peu

   d _____ comprends bien / parle bien

   e _____ comprends très bien / parle très bien

8. Est-il important pour un francophone vivant au Canada (y inclus Québec) de connaître les valeurs, la culture et le mode de vie des anglophones?

_____ pas du tout

_____ un peu

_____ beaucoup

_____ ne sais pas / ne s'applique pas

9. Comment qualifiez-vous vos connaissances grammaticales en français?

_____ très bonnes

_____ bonnes

_____ faibles

_____ mauvaises

10. Avez-vous de l'expérience dans l'enseignement du français langue seconde ou dans l'enseignement (en français) d'autres matières, à des anglophones?

_____ non

_____ oui

Si oui, spécifiez combien d'années à chacun de ces niveaux.

_____ primaire

_____ secondaire

_____ université

_____ autre (spécifiez: _____)

Compréhensibilité	C	1 2 3 4 5
Acceptabilité	A	1 2 3 4 5

1.	Le comité espère pour un changement dans les conditions de travail.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
2.	Le député a envoyé son délégué une lettre d'orientation.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
3.	Tes soeurs, tu devrais répondre à elles pour éviter des chicanes de famille.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
4.	Le style de coiffure qu'elle change tous les jours ne surprend plus ses amis.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
5.	L'accident qu'ils ont survécu a touché toute la communauté.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
6.	Charles aime toujours Lyne. Il ne renonce pas à elle même si elle a un amant.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
7.	Les spécialistes ont suggéré Ginette d'essayer un nouveau traitement.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
8.	Les subventions que l'agence a demandées arriveront l'an prochain.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
9.	Le président, je le dis souvent d'être plus ouvert aux nouvelles idées.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
10.	Il trouve le temps de jouer le piano même s'il a deux emplois.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
11.	Les joueurs ont perdu la partie. On doit permettre à eux de se reprendre.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
12.	L'autobus qu'ils attendent pour est en retard à cause de la neige.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
13.	Les trafiquants de drogue n'ont pas pu échapper les chiens policiers.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
14.	De retour de voyage, il regarde à son compte VISA avec découragement.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
15.	Le ministre a promis les citoyens de garder les services essentiels.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
16.	- Où sont les préposés aux bagages? - Regarde, l'agent montre à eux maintenant.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
17.	Ton assistant a des problèmes de gestion. Téléphone-le tout de suite.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5

18.	Les actrices ne sont pas prêtes. Il faut les permettre de changer la date de la pièce.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
19.	Si tu veux le meilleur siège pour ce délégué, je peux l'indiquer à son guide.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
20.	Le gérant de la banque a été envoyé le dossier au complet.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
21.	L'employé qu'il doute le plus est pourtant loyal et expérimenté.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
22.	Ces enfants sont très talentueux. C'est Josée qui les apprend à patiner.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
23.	Comme d'habitude, Laurent doit chercher pour ses clés partout dans la maison.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
24.	Il discute avec son patron et prie à lui de changer d'idée.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
25.	Nos bénévoles ont travaillé fort. Donnez à elles une récompense.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
26.	La guerre bouleverse ce vétéran. On ne peut en en parler avec lui.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
27.	Les enfants désobéissent leurs parents beaucoup plus qu'avant.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
28.	- Est-ce que Claire vous permet de partir? - On va la demander la permission.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
29.	Paul attend pour une réponse à sa demande d'emploi depuis un mois.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
30.	Même si on était en retard, un placier a montré à des sièges encore libres.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
31.	Nous avons discuté de ce livre sans pouvoir comprendre le but de l'auteur.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
32.	Le directeur leur défend d'aller au parc pendant la récréation.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
33.	- Veux-tu les textes de l'oratrice? - J'ai déjà demandé à elle ses notes.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
34.	La personne que Martine ressemble le plus n'est pas sa mère mais son grand-père.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
35.	Lucien joue le hockey avec ses camarades deux fois par semaine.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5

36.	Je crois que cette décision rapide va nuire à votre réputation.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
37.	L'honnêteté de notre candidat est sans reproche. Ne la doutez pas.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
38.	L'ennemi qu'il a pardonné est ensuite devenu un ami.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
39.	Cette danseuse a besoin de plus d'encouragement. Regarde à elle plus souvent.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
40.	Tes parents adorent le hockey. Donne-les un billet de saison.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
41.	Hier, j'ai été obligé d'assister cette réunion inutile.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
42.	Les ressources que cette organisation manque représentent un obstacle majeur.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
43.	Les délinquants ont été pardonnés parce qu'ils regrettaient sincèrement leur acte.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
44.	Les politiciens écoutent aux électeurs seulement en campagne électorale.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
45.	Le client a été expliqué comment utiliser l'appareil.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
46.	Ce vendeur, j'ai déjà dit à lui que je ne veux pas de ces produits.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
47.	Un gardien peut ordonner les prisonniers de rester dans leur cellule.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
48.	Une pancarte indique le stationnement réservé aux visiteurs.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
49.	Je doute le jugement de mon avocat parce qu'il répond arbitrairement.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
50.	Jean a eu de la difficulté à payer pour ses frais de scolarité.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
51.	Les délégués ont demandé un remboursement de leurs dépenses.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
52.	Les pays du Tiers-Monde manquent les moyens pour pouvoir se développer.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
53.	Depuis qu'elle est à l'hôpital, elle prie à Dieu pour retrouver la santé.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5

54.	La bourse que Marc espérait pour a été donnée à un autre étudiant.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
55.	- Est-ce que c'est la guitare classique de Marc? - Oui, et il la joue très bien.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
56.	L'attaque que ces réfugiés ont résisté a été terrible.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
57.	Voyant venir la crise, elle lui prie de ne pas agir trop vite.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
58.	- Ta belle-mère est là? - Oui, et je dois la plaire pour avoir la paix.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
59.	Du temps libre, je le manque pour aller au parc avec mes enfants.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
60.	J'ai posé à l'agent une question pratiquement impossible à répondre.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
61.	Le meuble que j'ai payé pour n'a pas encore été livré.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
62.	Les chats sont indépendants. On ne peut enseigner à eux contrairement aux chiens.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
63.	Les fidèles de sa paroisse, ce prêtre leur écoute avec compassion.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
64.	Le violon que Carole joue appartenait à son arrière-grand-père.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
65.	Quand son père prendra sa retraite, Luc lui succèdera comme directeur.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
66.	- As-tu l'horaire des départs? - Oui, je vais lui montrer aux voyageurs.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
67.	Ces clientes, je les ai répondues même si elles étaient très impatientes.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
68	Les ouvriers changent le sujet de conversation quand le contremaître arrive.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
69.	La solution qu'on cherchait pour depuis si longtemps était si simple.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
70.	Elles regardent régulièrement les téléromans et les discutent.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
71.	La réceptionniste à qui elle a succédé était très efficace.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5

72.	L'organisation du congrès, dont le conseil a discuté, pose des problèmes.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
73.	Ces enfants semblent malades. Regarde-leur attentivement pour trouver des symptômes.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
74.	Ses conseillères, Madame Dubé écoute à elles avec attention.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
75.	Si tu veux une réponse du chef, téléphone à lui. C'est son projet.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
76.	Sébastien a été prêté l'auto de son père jusqu'à demain.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
77.	- C'est la championne? - Non, mais il faut plaire à elle parce qu'elle a beaucoup d'influence.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5
78.	Les spectateurs ont été dit de quitter la salle sans panique.	C 1 2 3 4 5 A 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C
Analysis of Control Sentences by Sociolinguistic Variables

The following 10 tables show one-way ANOVAs for each sociolinguistic variable by each error subtype.

1. Results by Gender

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	m	4.67	.86	.91
		f	4.69	.70	
Co Pre	A	m	4.04	1.00	.24
		f	4.28	.96	
Co Ppr	C	m	4.50	.80	.64
		f	4.58	.76	
Co Ppr	A	m	3.55	1.20	.07
		f	3.95	.98	
Co Rpr	C	m	4.44	.73	.26
		f	4.60	.62	
Co Rpr	A	m	3.45	1.28	.0199*
		f	4.02	1.06	
Co Pas	C	m	4.70	.78	.17
		f	4.86	.39	
Co Pas	A	m	3.86	1.40	.0484*
		f	4.38	1.13	
MN Co	C	m	4.58	.65	.64
		f	4.64	.68	
MN Co	A	m	3.70	1.08	.0560*
		f	4.11	.99	

m = Male f = Female

2. Results by Age

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	18-25	4.50	1.13	.49
		26-39	4.57	.91	
		40-55	4.78	.57	
		56+	4.78	.33	
Co Pre	A	18-25	4.45	.90	.63
		26-39	4.04	1.05	
		40-55	4.24	.96	
		56+	4.18	.96	
Co Ppr	C	18-25	4.26	1.13	.23
		26-39	4.43	.96	
		40-55	4.68	.53	
		56+	4.65	.40	
Co Ppr	A	18-25	3.73	1.24	.81
		26-39	3.67	1.05	

		40-55	3.90	1.09	
		56+	3.92	.96	
Co Rpr	C	18-25	4.43	.77	.48
		26-39	4.64	.64	
		40-55	4.46	.66	
		56+	4.69	.60	
Co Rpr	A	18-25	4.02	1.11	.84
		26-39	3.88	1.08	
		40-55	3.74	1.21	
		56+	3.69	1.39	
Co Pas	C	18-25	4.86	.36	.95
		26-39	4.83	.46	
		40-55	4.78	.70	
		56+	4.77	.44	
Co Pas	A	18-25	4.36	1.15	.56
		26-39	3.93	1.36	
		40-55	4.24	1.28	
		56+	4.54	.93	
MN Co	C	18-25	4.51	.73	.71
		26-39	4.45	.90	
		40-55	4.68	.52	
		56+	4.72	.35	
MN Co	A	18-25	4.06	1.15	.82
		26-39	3.82	1.07	
		40-55	4.03	.98	
		56+	3.97	1.06	

18-25=18 to 25 years of age, 26-39=26 to 39 years of age ... 56+=56 years of age and older

3. Results by Level of Education

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	0-12	4.78	.46	.21
		13-17	4.78	.66	
		18+	4.50	1.00	
Co Pre	A	0-12	4.31	.88	.0104*
		13-17	4.47	.76	
		18+	3.81	1.14	
Co Ppr	C	0-12	4.72	.52	.18
		13-17	4.58	.72	
		18+	4.37	.96	
Co Ppr	A	0-12	4.06	1.05	.14
		13-17	3.86	.85	
		18+	3.54	1.26	
Co Rpr	C	0-12	4.58	.66	.87
		13-17	4.50	.62	
		18+	4.55	.72	
Co Rpr	A	0-12	4.02	1.19	.24
		13-17	3.90	1.04	
		18+	3.55	1.27	
Co Pas	C	0-12	4.82	.48	.23
		13-17	4.90	.30	

		18+	4.68	.81	
Co Pas	A	0-12	4.41	1.15	.11
		13-17	4.36	1.01	
		18+	3.82	1.51	
MN Co	C	0-12	4.73	.47	.20
		13-17	4.69	.45	
		18+	4.46	.94	
MN Co	A	0-12	4.16	1.02	.05
		13-17	4.12	.81	
		18+	3.63	1.20	

0-12 = 12 years of education or less, 13-17 = 13 to 17 years, 18+ = 18 years of education or more

4. Results by Place of Origin

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	C	4.52	.59	.11
		F	4.31	1.24	
		Q	4.77	.68	
Co Pre	A	C	3.60	.88	.0020*
		F	3.67	1.45	
		Q	4.39	.84	
Co Ppr	C	C	4.27	.73	.29
		F	4.49	1.18	
		Q	4.61	.71	
Co Ppr	A	C	3.00	.89	.0031*
		F	3.62	1.31	
		Q	3.99	1.00	
Co Rpr	C	C	4.22	.51	.0206*
		F	4.97	.11	
		Q	4.55	.70	
Co Rpr	A	C	3.22	.97	.09
		F	4.07	1.27	
		Q	3.90	1.17	
Co Pas	C	C	4.73	.46	.48
		F	5.00	.00	
		Q	4.79	.61	
Co Pas	A	C	4.07	1.22	.23
		F	3.56	1.94	
		Q	4.29	1.15	
MN Co	C	C	4.44	.38	.32
		F	4.47	1.33	
		Q	4.68	.57	
MN Co	A	C	3.47	.78	.0184*
		F	3.47	1.59	
		Q	4.13	.93	

C = Canada Excluding Quebec, Q = Quebec, F = France

5. Results by Place of Residence

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	E	4.44	.98	.11
		M	4.61	.93	
		Q	4.83	.44	
Co Pre	A	E	3.68	1.12	.0017*
		M	4.03	1.05	
		Q	4.53	.72	
Co Ppr	C	E	4.24	1.03	.12
		M	4.56	.82	
		Q	4.66	.58	
Co Ppr	A	E	3.10	1.09	.0010*
		M	3.76	1.18	
		Q	4.13	.83	
Co Rpr	C	E	4.39	.56	.53
		M	4.56	.77	
		Q	4.59	.62	
Co Rpr	A	E	3.54	1.09	.19
		M	3.66	1.31	
		Q	4.04	1.08	
Co Pas	C	E	4.79	.42	.40
		M	4.71	.84	
		Q	4.88	.33	
Co Pas	A	E	4.00	1.33	.0206*
		M	3.79	1.47	
		Q	4.54	.94	
MN Co	C	E	4.35	.99	.08
		M	4.61	.70	
		Q	4.74	.42	
MN Co	A	E	3.49	1.09	.0031*
		M	3.75	1.17	
		Q	4.31	.78	

E = Edmonton, M = Montreal, Q = Quebec outside of Montreal

6. Results by Frequency of Contact With Anglophones

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	1d	4.58	.94	.69
		1w	4.64	.66	
		1m	4.75	.41	
		no	4.81	.58	
		ot	4.45	1.10	
Co Pre	A	1d	3.98	1.00	.11
		1w	3.98	1.11	
		1m	4.30	.68	
		no	4.52	.88	
		ot	3.75	1.10	
Co Ppr	C	1d	4.42	.98	.46
		1w	4.63	.60	

		1m	4.75	.38	
		no	4.65	.57	
		ot	4.15	1.18	
Co Ppr	A	1d	3.50	1.16	.09
		1w	3.89	1.12	
		1m	3.93	.88	
		no	4.14	.94	
		ot	3.35	.85	
Co Rpr	C	1d	4.51	.62	.85
		1w	4.69	.42	
		1m	4.38	.93	
		no	4.54	.73	
		ot	4.67	.67	
Co Rpr	A	1d	3.75	1.11	.83
		1w	3.62	1.18	
		1m	3.63	1.29	
		no	3.99	1.17	
		ot	3.83	1.48	
Co Pas	C	1d	4.79	.47	.95
		1w	4.92	.28	
		1m	4.75	.46	
		no	4.79	.74	
		ot	4.75	.50	
Co Pas	A	1d	4.03	1.29	.31
		1w	3.83	1.53	
		1m	4.00	1.41	
		no	4.54	1.07	
		ot	4.00	1.15	
MN Co	C	1d	4.52	.83	.76
		1w	4.72	.42	
		1m	4.66	.48	
		no	4.70	.56	
		ot	4.50	.86	
MN Co	A	1d	3.74	1.08	.17
		1w	3.76	1.21	
		1m	3.96	.97	
		no	4.29	.89	
		ot	3.73	.95	

1d = once a day, 1m = once a month, 1y = once a year, no = no contact, ot = other

7. Results by Knowledge of English

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	luds	4.91	.24	.18
		uls	4.71	.75	
		us	4.52	1.02	
		vuvs	4.51	.86	
Co Pre	A	luds	4.71	.43	.0014*
		uls	4.27	1.04	
		us	3.74	.97	
		vuvs	3.87	1.08	

Co Ppr	C	luds	4.81	.38	.06
		uls	4.60	.68	
		us	4.44	.95	
		vuvs	4.29	.96	
Co Ppr	A	luds	4.42	.53	.0004*
		uls	3.90	1.04	
		us	3.29	1.21	
		vuvs	3.41	1.13	
Co Rpr	C	luds	4.68	.53	.37
		uls	4.60	.72	
		us	4.41	.83	
		vuvs	4.41	.59	
Co Rpr	A	luds	4.37	.73	.0014*
		uls	3.84	1.31	
		us	3.39	1.31	
		vuvs	3.48	1.10	
Co Pas	C	luds	4.96	.19	.25
		uls	4.67	.84	
		us	4.76	.56	
		vuvs	4.81	.40	
Co Pas	A	luds	4.79	.57	.0017*
		uls	4.25	1.35	
		us	3.35	1.41	
		vuvs	4.04	1.29	
MN Co	C	luds	4.84	.27	.12
		uls	4.65	.65	
		us	4.35	.67	
		vuvs	4.42	.89	
MN Co	A	luds	4.57	.45	.0002*
		uls	4.03	1.11	
		us	3.39	1.09	
		vuvs	3.63	1.05	

luds = understand little / do not speak, uls = understand well / speak little
us = understand well / speak well, vuvs = understand very well / speak very well

8. Results of by Degree of Importance Placed on Knowledge of English Culture

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	n	4.70	.77	.78
		y	4.65	.79	
Co Pre	A	n	4.34	.88	.21
		y	4.08	1.06	
Co Ppr	C	n	4.62	.81	.40
		y	4.48	.78	
Co Ppr	A	n	4.00	1.08	.12
		y	3.64	1.08	
Co Rpr	C	n	4.58	.55	.50
		y	4.49	.75	
Co Rpr	A	n	3.88	1.11	.48
		y	3.70	1.24	
Co Pas	C	n	4.70	.38	.23

		y	4.72	.67	
Co Pas	A	n	4.24	1.28	.27
		y	4.07	1.28	
MN Co	C	n	4.70	.48	.28
		y	4.54	.79	
MN Co	A	n	4.08	1.00	.23
		y	3.82	1.08	

n = no, y = yes

9. Results by Knowledge of French Grammar

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	vg	4.75	.81	.84
		g	4.65	.76	
		w	4.65	.64	
Co Pre	A	vg	4.32	.82	.48
		g	4.19	1.07	
		w	3.92	.86	
Co Ppr	C	vg	4.63	.86	.71
		g	4.52	.74	
		w	4.43	.75	
Co Ppr	A	vg	3.86	1.17	.44
		g	3.85	1.03	
		w	3.43	1.02	
Co Rpr	C	vg	4.74	.55	.0023*
		g	4.51	.69	
		w	4.14	.61	
Co Rpr	A	vg	4.12	1.21	.07
		g	3.78	1.12	
		w	3.22	1.13	
Co Pas	C	vg	4.84	.37	.89
		g	4.80	.66	
		w	4.75	.45	
Co Pas	A	vg	3.97	1.43	.41
		g	4.33	1.17	
		w	4.08	1.16	
MN Co	C	vg	4.74	.52	.45
		g	4.58	.75	
		w	4.49	.52	
MN Co	A	vg	4.03	1.03	.56
		g	3.99	1.07	
		w	3.66	.87	

vg = very good, g = good, w = weak

10. Results by Experience in Teaching French

Error Type			m	s	p
Co Pre	C	y	4.40	1.03	.07
		n	4.75	.67	

Co Pre	A	y	3.82	1.09	.06
		n	4.29	.93	
Co Ppr	C	y	4.23	1.05	.0493*
		n	4.62	.68	
Co Ppr	A	y	3.33	1.04	.0299*
		n	3.92	1.05	
Co Rpr	C	y	4.48	.70	.69
		n	4.55	.66	
Co Rpr	A	y	3.94	.92	.61
		n	3.79	1.22	
Co Pas	C	y	4.78	.43	.83
		n	4.81	.59	
Co Pas	A	y	3.67	1.41	.0498*
		n	4.30	1.19	
MN Co	C	y	4.35	1.03	.0510*
		n	4.68	.54	
MN Co	A	y	3.59	1.04	.08
		n	4.05	1.02	

y = yes, n = no

APPENDIX D
Analysis of Errors by Sociolinguistic Variables

The following 10 tables show one-way ANOVAs for each sociolinguistic variable by each error subtype.

1. Results by Gender

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	m	4.45	.57	.89
		f	4.44	.63	
Pre DI	A	m	2.39	.98	.30
		f	2.62	1.08	
Pre ID	C	m	4.57	.60	.85
		f	4.55	.53	
Pre ID	A	m	2.51	1.11	.16
		f	2.87	1.11	
Pre DP	C	m	4.69	.44	.57
		f	4.74	.42	
Pre DP	A	m	2.62	1.09	.0470*
		f	3.08	1.13	
Pre PD	C	m	4.59	.49	.55
		f	4.65	.48	
Pre PD	A	m	2.90	1.17	.20
		f	3.19	1.10	
Pre IDd	C	m	4.41	.56	.54
		f	4.33	.66	
Pre IDd	A	m	2.28	1.01	.20
		f	2.55	1.04	
MN Pre	C	m	4.54	.44	.99
		f	4.54	.47	
MN Pre	A	m	2.54	1.01	.13
		f	2.87	1.03	
Ppr DI	C	m	4.18	.71	.56
		f	4.28	.83	
Ppr DI	A	m	2.23	.89	.14
		f	2.53	1.05	
Ppr ID	C	m	4.53	.54	.97
		f	4.52	.60	
Ppr ID	A	m	2.36	1.17	.18
		f	2.69	1.18	
Ppr PD	C	m	4.49	.58	.63
		f	4.55	.56	
Ppr PD	A	m	2.67	1.20	.36
		f	2.89	1.10	
Ppr IDd	C	m	4.33	.65	.73
		f	4.28	.66	
Ppr IDd	A	m	2.15	1.01	.15
		f	2.46	1.03	

Ppr DIds	C	m	4.04	.79	.30
		f	3.87	.79	
Ppr DIds	A	m	1.83	.79	.22
		f	2.05	.91	
Fpr IIds	C	m	4.33	.71	.90
		f	4.35	.67	
Ppr IIds	A	m	2.04	.94	.15
		f	2.35	1.04	
Ppr IIdsd	C	m	4.51	.55	.96
		f	4.51	.62	
Ppr IIdsd	A	m	2.03	.99	.0220*
		f	2.52	1.04	
MN Ppr	C	m	4.35	.53	.94
		f	4.34	.57	
MN Ppr	A	m	2.19	.91	.12
		f	2.50	.98	
Rpr ID	C	m	4.43	.52	.44
		f	4.33	.71	
Rpr ID	A	m	2.33	1.03	.17
		f	2.63	1.06	
Rpr DP	C	m	4.55	.62	.47
		f	4.45	.76	
Rpr DP	A	m	2.06	1.00	.11
		f	2.44	1.19	
Rpr PD	C	m	4.40	.55	.76
		f	4.37	.58	
Rpr PD	A	m	2.71	1.09	.47
		f	2.87	1.07	
MN Rpr	C	m	4.46	.49	.48
		f	4.38	.58	
MN Rpr	A	m	2.37	.95	.17
		f	2.65	1.00	
Pas ID	C	m	4.09	.87	.10
		f	3.76	1.01	
Pas ID	A	m	1.79	.83	.31
		f	1.97	.92	

m = Male f = Female

2. Results by Age

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	18-25	4.20	.84	.31
		26-39	4.56	.62	
		40-55	4.43	.52	
		56+	4.46	.56	
Pre DI	A	18-25	3.07	.98	.12
		26-39	2.29	.99	
		40-55	2.58	1.10	
		56+	2.38	.91	

Pre ID	C	18-25	4.41	.74	.48
		26-39	4.66	.48	
		40-55	4.57	.48	
		56+	4.46	.72	
Pre ID	A	18-25	3.50	.88	.0295*
		26-39	2.50	1.10	
		40-55	2.76	1.12	
		56+	2.44	1.13	
Pre DP	C	18-25	4.50	.58	.18
		26-39	4.9	.42	
		40-55	4.75	.36	
		56+	4.69	.42	
Pre DP	A	18-25	3.52	.91	.09
		26-39	2.67	1.12	
		40-55	2.98	1.16	
		56+	2.63	1.12	
Pre PD	C	18-25	4.45	.59	.20
		26-39	4.65	.50	
		40-55	4.71	.38	
		56+	4.48	.58	
Pre PD	A	18-25	3.77	.96	.06
		26-39	2.84	1.05	
		40-55	3.11	1.18	
		56+	2.85	1.06	
Pre IDd	C	18-25	4.20	.64	.48
		26-39	4.44	.75	
		40-55	4.32	.54	
		56+	4.52	.55	
Pre IDd	A	18-25	3.07	.91	.10
		26-39	2.27	.98	
		40-55	2.42	1.07	
		56+	2.33	1.04	
MN Pre	C	18-25	3.35	.61	.33
		26-39	4.62	.48	
		40-55	4.55	.38	
		56+	4.52	.42	
MN Pre	A	18-25	3.39	.82	.0538*
		26-39	2.51	.98	
		40-55	2.77	1.07	
		56+	2.53	.99	
Ppr DI	C	18-25	4.05	.72	.62
		26-39	4.19	.97	
		40-55	4.29	.70	
		56+	4.42	.64	
Ppr DI	A	18-25	2.95	.86	.06
		26-39	2.16	.88	
		40-55	2.52	1.08	
		56+	2.17	.95	
Ppr ID	C	18-25	4.34	.68	.55
		26-39	4.52	.62	
		40-55	4.59	.51	
		56+	4.50	.56	
Ppr ID	A	18-25	3.50	.99	.0036*

		26-39	2.19	1.08	
		40-55	2.64	1.22	
		56+	2.23	.97	
Ppr PD	C	18-25	4.38	.80	.40
		26-39	4.53	.58	
		40-55	4.62	.50	
		56+	4.38	.44	
Ppr PD	A	18-25	3.46	.91	.0132*
		26-39	2.43	1.04	
		40-55	2.98	1.17	
		56+	2.44	1.09	
Ppr IDd	C	18-25	4.13	.82	.75
		26-39	4.35	.67	
		40-55	4.33	.59	
		56+	4.29	.66	
Ppr IDd	A	18-25	2.89	.93	.0341*
		26-39	1.99	.87	
		40-55	2.47	1.11	
		56+	2.21	.96	
Ppr DIds	C	18-25	3.73	.89	.63
		26-39	4.05	.76	
		40-55	3.89	.80	
		56+	4.00	.75	
Ppr DIds	A	18-25	2.38	.93	.09
		26-39	1.70	.66	
		40-55	2.04	.98	
		56+	1.92	.72	
Ppr IIds	C	18-25	3.98	.70	.13
		26-39	4.41	.82	
		40-55	4.34	.59	
		56+	4.56	.43	
Ppr IIds	A	18-25	2.73	.78	.0272*
		26-39	1.83	.84	
		40-55	2.35	1.10	
		56+	2.29	1.03	
Ppr IIdsd	C	18-25	4.23	.70	.21
		26-39	4.64	.59	
		40-55	4.51	.56	
		56+	4.50	.55	
Ppr IIdsd	A	18-25	2.55	.83	.09
		26-39	1.97	.82	
		40-55	2.55	1.16	
		56+	2.31	1.12	
MN Ppr	C	18-25	4.12	.65	.46
		26-39	4.38	.61	
		40-55	4.37	.51	
		56+	4.38	.43	
MN Ppr	A	18-25	2.92	.78	.0218*
		26-39	2.04	.81	
		40-55	2.51	1.06	
		56+	2.22	.89	
Rpr ID	C	18-25	4.36	.54	.73
		26-39	4.45	.62	

		40-55	4.36	.71	
		56+	4.21	.62	
Rpr ID	A	18-25	3.32	.87	.0116*
		26-39	2.31	.89	
		40-55	2.52	1.13	
		56+	2.17	.97	
Rpr DP	C	18-25	4.20	.82	.25
		26-39	4.60	.73	
		40-55	4.44	.68	
		56+	4.65	.58	
Rpr DP	A	18-25	2.68	1.10	.36
		26-39	2.05	1.04	
		40-55	2.37	1.21	
		56+	2.27	1.07	
Rpr PD	C	18-25	4.34	.84	.55
		26-39	4.35	.64	
		40-55	4.46	.43	
		56+	4.21	.42	
Rpr PD	A	18-25	3.46	1.16	.0262*
		26-39	2.61	.84	
		40-55	2.88	1.12	
		56+	2.31	1.03	
MN Rpr	C	18-25	4.30	.65	.80
		26-39	4.47	.61	
		40-55	4.82	.52	
		56+	4.36	.43	
MN Rpr	A	18-25	3.15	.89	.0422*
		26-39	2.32	.82	
		40-55	2.59	1.08	
		56+	2.25	.91	
Pas ID	C	18-25	3.79	.98	.62
		26-39	4.04	.89	
		40-55	3.76	1.01	
		56+	3.98	1.06	
Pas ID	A	18-25	2.54	.88	.0260*
		26-39	1.72	.80	
		40-55	1.90	.92	
		56+	1.69	.82	

18-25 = 18 to 25 years of age, 26-39 = 26 to 39 years of age ... 56+ = 56 years of age and older

3. Results by Level of Education

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	0-12	4.44	.57	.98
		13-17	4.43	.59	
		18+	4.46	.67	
Pre DI	A	0-12	3.01	1.07	.0016*
		13-17	2.60	.94	
		18+	2.09	.98	
Pre ID	C	0-12	4.61	.53	.87

		13-17	4.54	.56	
		18+	4.54	.56	
Pre ID	A	0-12	3.13	1.13	.0018*
		13-17	2.93	.97	
		18+	2.22	1.09	
Pre DP	C	0-12	4.67	.45	.64
		13-17	4.71	.45	
		18+	4.77	.38	
Pre DP	A	0-12	3.33	1.08	.0041*
		13-17	3.06	1.00	
		18+	2.44	1.17	
Pre PD	C	0-12	4.63	.48	1.00
		13-17	4.63	.42	
		18+	4.63	.55	
Pre PD	A	0-12	3.47	1.14	.0110*
		13-17	3.20	.95	
		18+	2.66	1.17	
Pre IDd	C	0-12	4.28	.69	.63
		13-17	4.36	.52	
		18+	4.43	.68	
Pre IDd	A	0-12	2.95	1.11	.0030*
		13-17	2.56	.88	
		18+	1.95	.92	
MN Pre	C	0-12	4.52	.48	.93
		13-17	4.54	.42	
		18+	4.57	.48	
MN Pre	A	0-12	3.18	1.04	.0011*
		13-17	2.87	.86	
		18+	2.27	1.03	
Ppr DI	C	0-12	4.34	.67	.70
		13-17	4.24	.67	
		18+	4.17	.98	
Ppr DI	A	0-12	2.83	1.04	.0011*
		13-17	2.56	.81	
		18+	1.96	1.00	
Ppr ID	C	0-12	4.46	.62	.37
		13-17	4.48	.57	
		18+	4.64	.54	
Ppr ID	A	0-12	3.03	1.23	.0016*
		13-17	2.74	1.08	
		18+	2.03	1.07	
Ppr PD	C	0-12	4.51	.61	.86
		13-17	4.51	.55	
		18+	4.57	.55	
Ppr PD	A	0-12	3.17	1.16	.0311*
		13-17	2.90	1.00	
		18+	2.44	1.17	
Ppr IDd	C	0-12	4.28	.67	.93
		13-17	4.29	.66	
		18+	4.34	.65	
Ppr IDd	A	0-12	2.77	1.12	.0033*
		13-17	2.44	.88	
		18+	1.92	.98	

Ppr DIds	C	0-12	3.79	.76	.35
		13-17	3.91	.87	
		18+	4.07	.71	
Ppr DIds	A	0-12	2.29	1.03	.0383*
		13-17	1.95	.74	
		18+	1.74	.81	
Ppr IIds	C	0-12	4.39	.66	.33
		13-17	4.22	.69	
		18+	4.44	.67	
Ppr IIds	A	0-12	2.61	1.15	.0129*
		13-17	2.30	.87	
		18+	1.87	.94	
Ppr IIdsd	C	0-12	4.38	.58	.31
		13-17	4.51	.64	
		18+	4.61	.55	
Ppr IIdsd	A	0-12	2.84	1.20	.0033*
		13-17	2.33	.79	
		18+	1.96	1.02	
MN Ppr	C	0-12	4.31	.57	.67
		13-17	4.31	.53	
		18+	4.41	.57	
MN Ppr	A	0-12	2.79	1.06	.0031*
		13-17	2.46	.78	
		18+	1.99	.95	
Rpr ID	C	0-12	4.29	.66	.69
		13-17	4.37	.65	
		18+	4.43	.64	
Rpr ID	A	0-12	2.95	1.14	.0005*
		13-17	2.69	.87	
		18+	1.99	.98	
Rpr DP	C	0-12	4.42	.66	.55
		13-17	4.44	.77	
		18+	4.59	.68	
Rpr DP	A	0-12	2.79	1.20	.0074*
		13-17	2.32	1.04	
		18+	1.90	1.04	
Rpr PD	C	0-12	4.39	.58	.60
		13-17	4.43	.54	
		18+	4.30	.59	
Rpr PD	A	0-12	3.21	1.14	.0008*
		13-17	3.01	.83	
		18+	2.29	1.08	
MN Rpr	C	0-12	4.37	.58	.87
		13-17	4.41	.54	
		18+	4.44	.58	
MN Rpr	A	0-12	2.98	1.07	.0005*
		13-17	2.67	.75	
		18+	2.06	.97	
Pas ID	C	0-12	3.81	.96	.43
		13-17	3.77	1.01	
		18+	4.05	.94	
Pas ID	A	0-12	2.14	1.02	.0057*

		13-17	2.08	.83	
		18+	1.52	.73	
Co Pre	C	0-12	4.78	.46	.21
		13-17	4.78	.66	
		18+	4.50	1.00	
Co Pre	A	0-12	4.31	.88	.0104*
		13-17	4.47	.76	
		18+	3.81	1.14	
Co Ppr	C	0-12	4.72	.52	.18
		13-17	4.58	.72	
		18+	4.37	.96	
Co Ppr	A	0-12	4.06	1.05	.14
		13-17	3.86	.85	
		18+	3.54	1.26	

0-12 = 12 years of education or less, 13-17 = 13 to 17 years, 18+ = 18 years of education or more

4. Results by Place of Origin

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	C	4.37	.74	.64
		F	4.59	.58	
		Q	4.44	.59	
Pre DI	A	C	2.62	1.11	.20
		F	2.00	.95	
		Q	2.60	1.04	
Pre ID	C	C	4.57	.62	.80
		F	4.45	.58	
		Q	4.57	.54	
Pre ID	A	C	2.78	1.22	.0298*
		F	1.91	.91	
		Q	2.86	1.08	
Pre DP	C	C	4.73	.41	.96
		F	4.75	.35	
		Q	4.71	.44	
Pre DP	A	C	3.00	1.16	.18
		F	2.32	.89	
		Q	2.99	1.15	
Pre PD	C	C	4.60	.47	.93
		F	4.59	.50	
		Q	4.64	.49	
Pre PD	A	C	3.40	1.22	.0379*
		F	2.32	.92	
		Q	3.14	1.10	
Pre IDd	C	C	4.15	.79	.28
		F	4.52	.64	
		Q	4.38	.58	
Pre IDd	A	C	2.38	.77	.26
		F	2.00	.87	
		Q	2.54	1.09	
MN Pre	C	C	4.83	.54	.84

		F	4.58	.44	
		Q	4.55	.44	
MN Pre	A	C	2.84	1.02	.09
		F	2.11	.85	
		Q	2.82	1.03	
Ppr DI	C	C	4.02	1.09	.46
		F	4.20	.81	
		Q	4.29	.71	
Ppr DI	A	C	2.42	.92	.21
		F	1.93	.57	
		Q	2.50	1.05	
Ppr ID	C	C	4.47	.60	.75
		F	4.43	.66	
		Q	4.55	.56	
Ppr ID	A	C	2.73	1.28	.0153*
		F	1.61	.76	
		Q	2.68	1.16	
Ppr PD	C	C	4.52	.56	.99
		F	4.52	.53	
		Q	4.53	.58	
Ppr PD	A	C	3.13	1.04	.0238*
		F	1.98	.82	
		Q	2.87	1.15	
Ppr IDd	C	C	4.22	.67	.86
		F	4.30	.72	
		Q	4.32	.65	
Ppr IDd	A	C	2.32	.99	.0523*
		F	1.66	.74	
		Q	2.46	1.04	
Ppr DIds	C	C	3.97	.57	.69
		F	4.11	.85	
		Q	3.90	.82	
Ppr DIds	A	C	1.95	.68	.15
		F	1.50	.61	
		Q	2.04	.92	
Ppr IIds	C	C	4.10	.64	.23
		F	4.55	.88	
		Q	4.36	.65	
Ppr IIds	A	C	2.07	.73	.0152*
		F	1.48	.72	
		Q	2.38	1.05	
Ppr IIdsd	C	C	4.42	.53	.59
		F	4.66	.54	
		Q	4.51	.62	
Ppr IIdsd	A	C	2.03	.68	.08
		F	1.86	1.00	
		Q	2.48	1.08	
MN Ppr	C	C	4.24	.58	.74
		F	4.40	.59	
		Q	4.35	.55	
MN Ppr	A	C	2.38	.80	.0448*
		F	1.72	.68	
		Q	2.49	1.00	

Rpr ID	C	C	4.42	.54	.95
		F	4.36	.82	
		Q	4.36	.65	
Rpr ID	A	C	2.78	1.02	.18
		F	2.02	.77	
		Q	2.54	1.09	
Rpr DP	C	C	4.50	.62	.81
		F	4.61	.70	
		Q	4.46	.73	
Rpr DP	A	C	2.38	1.10	.10
		F	1.61	.79	
		Q	2.39	1.16	
Rpr PD	C	C	4.33	.52	.73
		F	4.50	.39	
		Q	4.37	.59	
Rpr PD	A	C	2.85	1.03	.38
		F	2.39	.90	
		Q	2.87	1.10	
MN Rpr	C	C	4.42	.46	.87
		F	4.49	.57	
		Q	4.40	.58	
MN Rpr	A	C	2.67	.89	.16
		F	2.01	.64	
		Q	2.60	1.03	
Pas ID	C	C	4.22	.71	.29
		F	3.98	.99	
		Q	3.80	1.01	
Pas ID	A	C	2.18	.86	.14
		F	1.48	.54	
		Q	1.91	.92	
Co Pre	C	C	4.52	.59	.11
		F	4.31	1.24	
		Q	4.77	.68	
Co Pre	A	C	3.60	.88	.0020*
		F	3.67	1.45	
		Q	4.39	.84	

C = Canada Excluding Quebec, Q = Quebec, F = France

5. Results by Place of Residence

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	E	4.45	.66	.33
		M	4.56	.51	
		Q	4.36	.65	
Pre DI	A	E	2.44	1.05	.0030*
		M	2.11	.86	
		Q	2.88	1.07	
Pre ID	C	E	4.64	.56	.56

		M	4.60	.50	
		Q	4.50	.59	
Pre ID	A	E	2.58	1.14	.0008*
		M	2.26	.99	
		Q	3.16	1.05	
Pre DP	C	E	4.75	.38	.34
		M	4.79	.41	
		Q	4.66	.45	
Pre DP	A	E	2.86	1.03	.0033*
		M	2.44	1.10	
		Q	3.28	1.09	
Pre PD	C	E	4.63	.48	.60
		M	4.69	.45	
		Q	4.59	.51	
Pre PD	A	E	3.19	1.16	.0069*
		M	2.61	1.08	
		Q	3.39	1.05	
Pre IDd	C	E	4.35	.77	.75
		M	4.43	.57	
		Q	4.32	.60	
Pre IDd	A	E	2.31	.74	.0033*
		M	2.05	.96	
		Q	2.80	1.09	
MN Pre	C	E	4.56	.49	.43
		M	2.62	.37	
		Q	4.48	.49	
MN Pre	A	E	2.68	.95	.0016*
		M	2.29	.95	
		Q	3.10	1.00	
Ppr DI	C	E	4.06	.99	.41
		M	4.36	.59	
		Q	4.23	.81	
Ppr DI	A	E	2.29	.83	.0129*
		M	2.09	.91	
		Q	2.72	1.05	
Ppr ID	C	E	4.53	.53	.41
		M	4.63	.47	
		Q	4.45	.65	
Ppr ID	A	E	2.41	1.26	.0038*
		M	2.11	1.04	
		Q	2.97	1.03	
Ppr PD	C	E	4.60	.51	.30
		M	4.62	.48	
		Q	4.44	.63	
Ppr PD	A	E	2.86	1.09	.0127*
		M	2.37	1.11	
		Q	3.11	1.09	
Ppr IDd	C	E	4.28	.64	.52
		M	4.40	.59	
		Q	4.24	.71	
Ppr IDd	A	E	2.11	.95	.0028*
		M	1.99	.93	
		Q	2.71	1.03	

Ppr DIds	C	E	4.06	.59	.20
		M	4.07	.69	
		Q	3.79	.90	
Ppr DIds	A	E	1.80	.67	.05
		M	1.77	.76	
		Q	2.19	.98	
Ppr IIds	C	E	4.31	.67	.04
		M	4.57	.43	
		Q	4.20	.78	
Ppr IIds	A	E	1.90	.79	.0024*
		M	1.93	.90	
		Q	2.60	1.06	
Ppr IIdsd	C	E	4.54	.51	.0526*
		M	4.69	.45	
		Q	4.37	.68	
Ppr IIdsd	A	E	1.93	.70	.0052*
		M	2.11	.97	
		Q	2.69	1.11	
MN Ppr	C	E	4.34	.54	.17
		M	4.48	.39	
		Q	4.25	.64	
MN Ppr	A	E	2.19	.80	.0044*
		M	2.05	.88	
		Q	2.71	1.00	
Rpr ID	C	E	4.49	.54	.38
		M	4.43	.49	
		Q	4.28	.77	
Rpr ID	A	E	2.65	.94	.0026*
		M	2.03	.88	
		Q	2.82	1.11	
Rpr DP	C	E	4.60	.57	.0126*
		M	4.72	.38	
		Q	4.28	.87	
Rpr DP	A	E	2.11	1.07	.07
		M	2.04	.98	
		Q	2.57	1.22	
Rpr PD	C	E	4.43	.49	.89
		M	4.38	.46	
		Q	4.35	.66	
Rpr PD	A	E	2.85	.91	.0015*
		M	2.31	.94	
		Q	3.16	1.10	
MN Rpr	C	E	4.50	.43	.17
		M	4.51	.37	
		Q	4.30	.68	
MN Rpr	A	E	2.54	.82	.0040*
		M	2.13	.85	
		Q	2.85	1.05	
Pas ID	C	E	4.25	.68	.0247*
		M	4.03	.87	
		Q	3.62	1.08	
Pas ID	A	E	2.01	.83	.0251*

		M	1.57	.67	
		Q	2.10	1.00	
Co Pre	C	E	4.44	.98	.11
		M	4.61	.93	
		Q	4.83	.44	
Co Pre	A	E	3.68	1.12	.0017*
		M	4.03	1.05	
		Q	4.53	.72	
Co Ppr	C	E	4.24	1.03	.12
		M	4.56	.82	
		Q	4.66	.58	
Co Ppr	A	E	3.10	1.09	.0010*
		M	3.76	1.18	
		Q	4.13	.83	
Co Rpr	C	E	4.39	.56	.53
		M	4.56	.77	
		Q	4.59	.62	

E = Edmonton, M = Montreal, Q = Quebec outside of Montreal

6. Results by Frequency of Contact with Anglophones

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	ld	4.44	.59	.92
		lw	4.54	.51	
		lm	4.28	.93	
		no	4.44	.59	
		ot	4.50	.84	
Pre DI	A	ld	3.38	.99	.29
		lw	2.33	.96	
		lm	2.94	1.00	
		no	2.75	1.15	
		ot	2.06	.82	
Pre ID	C	ld	4.67	.53	.55
		lw	4.54	.56	
		lm	4.53	.62	
		no	4.45	.57	
		ot	4.63	.48	
Pre ID	A	ld	2.61	1.12	.51
		lw	2.69	.97	
		lm	3.28	.84	
		no	2.84	1.20	
		ot	2.31	1.25	
Pre DP	C	ld	4.74	.43	.86
		lw	4.75	.41	
		lm	4.56	.55	
		no	4.72	.41	
		ot	4.75	.50	
Pre DP	A	ld	2.79	1.08	.39
		lw	2.60	1.13	
		lm	3.09	1.06	

		no	3.18	1.20	
		ot	2.50	1.04	
Pre PD	C	1d	4.61	.49	.56
		1w	4.71	.45	
		1m	4.66	.57	
		no	4.65	.42	
		ot	4.25	.87	
Pre PD	A	1d	3.04	1.12	.45
		1w	2.81	1.21	
		1m	3.56	.82	
		no	3.20	1.17	
		ot	2.50	.84	
Pre IDd	C	1d	4.39	.69	.93
		1w	4.42	.63	
		1m	4.25	.64	
		no	4.32	.54	
		ot	4.50	.84	
Pre IDd	A	1d	2.34	.94	.81
		1w	2.40	1.05	
		1m	2.75	.94	
		no	2.55	1.16	
		ot	2.31	1.13	
MN Pre	C	1d	4.57	.45	.95
		1w	4.59	.44	
		1m	4.46	.62	
		no	4.52	.42	
		ot	4.53	.69	
MN Pre	A	1d	2.63	.99	.49
		1w	2.57	1.01	
		1m	3.13	.86	
		no	2.90	1.12	
		ot	2.34	.95	
Ppr DI	C	1d	4.14	.80	.46
		1w	4.46	.54	
		1m	4.22	.69	
		no	4.33	.76	
		ot	3.75	1.54	
Ppr DI	A	1d	2.28	.84	.15
		1w	2.27	1.03	
		1m	2.94	.82	
		no	2.61	1.13	
		ot	1.69	1.05	
Ppr ID	C	1d	4.52	.50	.99
		1w	4.52	.56	
		1m	4.53	.73	
		no	4.55	.58	
		ot	4.38	1.09	
Ppr ID	A	1d	2.35	1.12	.33
		1w	2.46	1.08	
		1m	3.16	.97	
		no	2.76	1.30	
		ot	2.31	1.18	
Ppr PD	C	1d	4.58	.52	.64

		lw	4.58	.39	
		lm	4.28	.89	
		no	4.53	.55	
		ot	4.31	.90	
Ppr PD	A	ld	2.72	1.11	.51
		lw	2.77	1.10	
		lm	3.00	.99	
		no	2.98	1.23	
		ot	2.00	.84	
Ppr IDd	C	ld	4.28	.61	.64
		lw	4.54	.53	
		lm	4.25	.60	
		no	4.24	.72	
		ot	4.50	1.00	
Ppr IDd	A	ld	2.18	.96	.47
		lw	2.29	1.02	
		lm	2.72	.96	
		no	2.52	1.13	
		ot	2.00	.94	
Ppr DIds	C	ld	4.02	.69	.38
		lw	4.17	.47	
		lm	4.00	.73	
		no	3.79	.95	
		ot	3.50	.94	
Ppr DIds	A	ld	1.86	.75	.75
		lw	1.96	.85	
		lm	2.09	.53	
		no	2.09	1.06	
		ot	1.69	.85	
Ppr IIds	C	ld	4.38	.57	.91
		lw	4.44	.51	
		lm	4.38	.64	
		no	4.28	.80	
		ot	4.19	1.18	
Ppr IIds	A	ld	1.99	.81	.12
		lw	2.08	1.05	
		lm	2.84	.73	
		no	2.45	1.18	
		ot	2.06	1.09	
Ppr IIdsd	C	ld	4.57	.52	.82
		lw	4.56	.49	
		lm	4.59	.57	
		no	4.43	.68	
		ot	4.38	.95	
Ppr IIdsd	A	ld	2.09	.84	.17
		lw	2.42	1.14	
		lm	2.81	1.00	
		no	2.55	1.16	
		ot	1.88	1.18	
MN Ppr	C	ld	4.36	.48	.85
		lw	4.47	.42	
		lm	4.32	.58	
		no	4.31	.61	
		ot	4.14	1.07	

MN Ppr	A	ld	2.21	.84	.30
		lw	2.32	.98	
		lm	2.79	.79	
		no	2.57	1.10	
		ot	1.95	.98	
Rpr ID	C	ld	4.44	.51	.58
		lw	4.37	.52	
		lm	4.56	.51	
		no	4.28	.76	
		ot	4.06	1.25	
Rpr ID	A	ld	2.49	.92	.44
		lw	2.38	1.00	
		lm	3.00	1.16	
		no	2.58	1.20	
		ot	1.81	.80	
Rpr DP	C	ld	4.59	.53	.59
		lw	4.60	.51	
		lm	4.41	.72	
		no	4.38	.81	
		ot	4.19	1.63	
Rpr DP	A	ld	2.19	1.07	.59
		lw	2.23	1.00	
		lm	2.78	1.03	
		no	2.40	1.26	
		ot	1.81	1.31	
Rpr PD	C	ld	4.44	.47	.06
		lw	4.25	.60	
		lm	4.47	.71	
		no	4.41	.53	
		ot	3.63	.97	
Rpr PD	A	ld	2.71	.86	.30
		lw	2.60	1.13	
		lm	3.25	1.35	
		no	2.99	1.20	
		ot	2.13	.83	
MN Rpr	C	ld	4.49	.42	.41
		lw	4.40	.48	
		lm	4.47	.55	
		no	4.36	.60	
		ot	3.96	1.27	
MN Rpr	A	ld	2.46	.83	.36
		lw	2.40	.96	
		lm	3.01	1.04	
		no	2.66	1.14	
		ot	1.92	.90	
Pas ID	C	ld	4.11	.74	.26
		lw	3.96	.92	
		lm	3.94	1.03	
		no	3.61	1.11	
		ot	3.69	1.43	
Pas ID	A	ld	1.88	.81	.42
		lw	1.69	.90	

		1m	2.28	.91	
		no	1.99	.99	
		ot	1.38	.60	
CO Pre	C	1d	4.58	.94	.69
		1w	4.64	.66	
		1m	4.75	.41	
		no	4.81	.58	
		ot	4.45	1.10	
CO Pre	A	1d	3.98	1.00	.11
		1w	3.98	1.11	
		1m	4.30	.68	
		no	4.52	.88	
		ot	3.75	1.10	

1d = once a day, 1m = once a month, 1y = once a year, no = no contact, ot = other

7. Results by Knowledge of English

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	luds	4.46	.56	.73
		uls	4.43	.65	
		us	4.31	.60	
		vuvs	4.52	.63	
Pre DI	A	luds	3.08	1.10	.0024*
		uls	2.37	.92	
		us	1.94	.92	
		vuvs	2.53	.98	
Pre ID	C	luds	4.52	.53	.74
		uls	4.58	.55	
		us	4.47	.63	
		vuvs	4.64	.53	
Pre ID	A	luds	3.20	1.10	.0361*
		uls	2.60	1.08	
		us	2.25	.98	
		vuvs	2.73	1.14	
Pre DP	C	luds	4.78	.34	.40
		uls	4.66	.47	
		us	4.62	.53	
		vuvs	4.79	.38	
Pre DP	A	luds	3.49	.90	.0004*
		uls	2.65	1.18	
		us	2.16	.90	
		vuvs	3.09	1.12	
Pre PD	C	luds	4.69	.42	.43
		uls	4.70	.47	
		us	4.50	.59	
		vuvs	4.56	.49	
Pre PD	A	luds	3.59	.91	.0056*
		uls	2.76	1.34	
		us	2.57	1.10	
		vuvs	3.24	1.13	

Pre IDd	C	luds	4.29	.56	.86
		uls	4.42	.54	
		us	4.41	.73	
		vuvs	4.35	.71	
Pre IDd	A	luds	2.89	1.05	.0372*
		uls	2.35	1.11	
		us	2.03	.99	
		vuvs	2.38	.84	
MN Pre	C	luds	4.55	.42	.88
		uls	4.56	.44	
		us	4.46	.51	
		vuvs	4.57	.49	
MN Pre	A	luds	3.25	.97	.0040*
		uls	2.55	1.01	
		us	2.19	.92	
		vuvs	2.79	.98	
Ppr DI	C	luds	4.32	.76	.85
		uls	4.24	.79	
		us	4.10	.59	
		vuvs	4.25	.92	
Ppr DI	A	luds	2.86	1.07	.0089*
		uls	2.43	1.03	
		us	1.84	.71	
		vuvs	2.35	.89	
Ppr ID	C	luds	4.59	.56	.84
		uls	4.49	.63	
		us	4.44	.60	
		vuvs	4.45	.54	
Ppr ID	A	luds	3.10	1.20	.0124*
		uls	2.43	1.12	
		us	1.96	1.00	
		vuvs	2.58	1.16	
Ppr PD	C	luds	4.58	.57	.56
		uls	4.48	.55	
		us	4.40	.73	
		vuvs	4.62	.46	
Ppr PD	A	luds	3.25	1.04	.0136*
		uls	2.56	1.19	
		us	2.25	1.10	
		vuvs	2.98	1.04	
Ppr IDd	C	luds	4.33	.68	.94
		uls	4.34	.68	
		us	4.25	.67	
		vuvs	4.26	.61	
Ppr IDd	A	luds	2.89	1.07	.0028*
		uls	2.25	1.01	
		us	1.78	.76	
		vuvs	2.27	.95	
Ppr DIds	C	luds	3.88	.90	.36
		uls	3.76	.81	
		us	4.09	.67	
		vuvs	4.08	.69	
Ppr DIds	A	luds	2.35	1.01	.0307*

		uls	1.89	.85	
		us	1.60	.67	
		vuvs	1.90	.76	
Ppr IIds	C	luds	4.41	.65	.62
		uls	4.22	.79	
		us	4.46	.59	
		vuvs	4.34	.64	
Ppr IIds	A	luds	2.78	1.07	.0037*
		uls	2.21	1.05	
		us	1.78	.87	
		vuvs	2.01	.77	
Ppr IIdsd	C	luds	4.55	.61	.68
		uls	4.43	.63	
		us	4.63	.52	
		vuvs	4.48	.61	
Ppr IIdsd	A	luds	2.98	1.05	.0004*
		uls	2.30	1.12	
		us	1.78	.80	
		vuvs	2.10	.76	
MN Ppr	C	luds	4.38	.59	.90
		uls	4.28	.58	
		us	4.34	.48	
		vuvs	4.37	.55	
MN Ppr	A	luds	2.89	.99	.0033*
		uls	2.30	1.00	
		us	1.86	.78	
		vuvs	2.31	.80	
Rpr ID	C	luds	4.37	.66	.98
		uls	4.36	.61	
		us	4.32	.58	
		vuvs	4.40	.73	
Rpr ID	A	luds	2.99	1.15	.0082*
		uls	2.30	1.03	
		us	1.99	.73	
		vuvs	2.61	.98	
Rpr DP	C	luds	4.38	.81	.66
		uls	4.45	.81	
		us	4.53	.59	
		vuvs	4.61	.55	
Rpr DP	A	luds	2.79	1.22	.0385*
		uls	2.18	1.06	
		us	1.85	1.01	
		vuvs	2.22	1.07	
Rpr PD	C	luds	4.50	.45	.43
		uls	4.29	.64	
		us	4.26	.56	
		vuvs	4.41	.57	
Rpr PD	A	luds	2.38	.95	.0031*
		uls	2.63	1.19	
		us	2.26	.82	
		vuvs	2.77	.99	
MN Rpr	C	luds	4.41	.59	.89
		uls	4.37	.61	

		us	4.37	.51	
		vuvs	4.47	.51	
MN Rpr	A	luds	3.05	1.02	.0038*
		uls	2.37	1.00	
		us	2.03	.75	
		vuvs	2.53	.88	
Pas ID	C	luds	3.68	1.14	.30
		uls	3.78	.91	
		us	3.91	.89	
		vuvs	4.15	.88	
Pas ID	A	luds	2.26	.98	.0351*
		uls	1.78	.86	
		us	1.50	.60	
		vuvs	1.93	.88	

luds = understand little / do not speak, uls = understand well / speak little
us = understand well / speak well, vuvs = understand very well / speak very well

8. Results by Degree of Importance Placed on Knowledge of English Culture

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	n	4.40	.58	.72
		y	4.44	.65	
Pre DI	A	n	2.45	1.04	.59
		y	2.56	1.03	
Pre ID	C	n	4.53	.56	.87
		y	4.55	.57	
Pre ID	A	n	2.73	1.16	.95
		y	2.72	1.05	
Pre DP	C	n	4.69	.42	.72
		y	4.72	.44	
Pre DP	A	n	2.80	1.12	.45
		y	2.98	1.12	
Pre PD	C	n	4.67	.47	.48
		y	4.59	.49	
Pre PD	A	n	2.97	1.17	.49
		y	3.13	1.09	
Pre IDd	C	n	4.38	.56	.73
		y	4.34	.67	
Pre IDd	A	n	2.43	1.08	.83
		y	2.49	.97	
MN Pre	C	n	4.53	.45	.98
		y	4.53	.48	
MN Pre	A	n	2.68	1.06	.64
		y	2.78	.99	
Ppr DI	C	n	4.20	.83	.74
		y	4.25	.77	
Ppr DI	A	n	2.45	1.02	.69
		y	2.37	.96	
Ppr ID	C	n	4.50	.61	.89

		y	4.52	.56	
Ppr ID	A	n	2.53	1.24	.83
		y	2.59	1.11	
Ppr PD	C	n	4.50	.60	.86
		y	4.52	.56	
Ppr PD	A	n	2.73	1.17	.67
		y	2.83	1.02	
Ppr IDd	C	n	4.31	.69	.76
		y	4.27	.65	
Ppr IDd	A	n	2.36	1.06	.92
		y	2.34	.98	
Ppr DIds	C	n	3.84	.90	.41
		y	3.97	.71	
Ppr DIds	A	n	1.91	.87	.68
		y	1.98	.80	
Ppr IIds	C	n	4.21	.79	.21
		y	4.39	.61	
Ppr IIds	A	n	2.17	1.04	.63
		y	2.27	.96	
Ppr IIdsd	C	n	4.48	.64	.93
		y	4.49	.58	
Ppr IIdsd	A	n	2.29	1.02	.69
		y	2.38	1.01	
MN Ppr	C	n	4.29	.61	.64
		y	4.35	.53	
MN Ppr	A	n	2.35	.99	.82
		y	2.39	.90	
Rpr ID	C	n	4.31	.66	.58
		y	4.38	.66	
Rpr ID	A	n	2.45	1.04	.64
		y	2.56	1.03	
Rpr DP	C	n	4.38	.86	.34
		y	4.52	.62	
Rpr DP	A	n	2.14	1.11	.31
		y	2.38	1.11	
Rpr PD	C	n	4.36	.60	.92
		y	4.37	.56	
Rpr PD	A	n	2.82	1.03	.83
		y	2.77	1.11	
MN Rpr	C	n	4.35	.65	.51
		y	4.43	.50	
MN Rpr	A	n	2.47	.97	.64
		y	2.57	.98	
Pas ID	C	n	3.75	1.05	.38
		y	3.93	.95	
Pas ID	A	n	1.87	.87	.88
		y	1.90	.87	
Co Pre	C	n	4.70	.77	.78
		y	4.65	.79	
Co Pre	A	n	4.34	.88	.21

		y	4.08	1.06	

n = no, y = yes

9. Results by Knowledge of French Grammar

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	vg	4.56	.60	.40
		g	4.38	.62	
		w	4.48	.59	
Pre DI	A	vg	2.33	1.16	.28
		g	2.58	1.03	
		w	2.88	.82	
Pre ID	C	vg	4.50	.62	.23
		g	4.54	.53	
		w	4.81	.44	
Pre ID	A	vg	2.31	1.06	.0178*
		g	2.86	1.14	
		w	3.27	.79	
Pre DP	C	vg	2.84	.31	.12
		g	4.65	.47	
		w	4.77	.39	
Pre DP	A	vg	2.70	1.08	.43
		g	3.00	1.21	
		w	3.10	.82	
Pre PD	C	vg	4.75	.40	.05
		g	4.62	.45	
		w	4.35	.69	
Pre PD	A	vg	2.91	1.07	.41
		g	3.11	1.18	
		w	3.42	.96	
Pre IDd	C	vg	4.43	.71	.78
		g	4.34	.57	
		w	4.31	.65	
Pre IDd	A	vg	2.19	1.02	.24
		g	2.57	1.09	
		w	2.56	.64	
MN Pre	C	vg	4.61	.47	.55
		g	4.50	.45	
		w	4.55	.47	
MN Pre	A	vg	2.49	1.03	.20
		g	2.82	1.07	
		w	3.05	.70	
Ppr DI	C	vg	4.30	.84	.89
		g	4.23	.71	
		w	4.19	1.05	
Ppr DI	A	vg	2.15	1.06	.16
		g	2.51	.95	
		w	2.71	1.04	
Ppr ID	C	vg	4.67	.45	.24
		g	4.45	.58	

		w	4.50	.77	
Ppr ID	A	vg	2.33	1.21	.21
		g	2.61	1.17	
		w	3.02	1.15	
Ppr PD	C	vg	4.62	.55	.32
		g	4.52	.54	
		w	4.33	.71	
Ppr PD	A	vg	2.66	1.19	.48
		g	2.83	1.12	
		w	3.13	1.08	
Ppr IDd	C	vg	4.32	.65	.82
		g	4.27	.67	
		w	4.40	.66	
Ppr IDd	A	vg	2.10	1.02	.23
		g	2.43	1.05	
		w	2.63	.88	
Ppr DIds	C	vg	4.05	.70	.53
		g	3.86	.80	
		w	4.00	.94	
Ppr DIds	A	vg	1.81	.93	.43
		g	2.03	.89	
		w	2.13	.87	
Ppr IIds	C	vg	4.44	.62	.66
		g	4.30	.70	
		w	4.29	.74	
Ppr IIds	A	vg	2.07	1.01	.48
		g	2.28	1.02	
		w	2.46	.97	
Ppr IIdsd	C	vg	4.62	.55	.43
		g	4.45	.59	
		w	4.42	.71	
Ppr IIdsd	A	vg	2.10	1.01	.27
		g	2.47	1.10	
		w	2.38	.74	
MN Ppr	C	vg	4.43	.51	.55
		g	4.30	.54	
		w	4.32	.70	
MN Ppr	A	vg	2.18	.99	.28
		g	2.45	.97	
		w	2.63	.79	
Rpr ID	C	vg	4.56	.49	.13
		g	4.27	.67	
		w	4.38	.82	
Rpr ID	A	vg	2.28	1.10	.26
		g	2.59	1.04	
		w	2.81	.94	
Rpr DP	C	vg	4.58	.51	.67
		g	4.45	.73	
		w	4.42	1.02	
Rpr DP	A	vg	2.09	1.11	.34
		g	2.36	1.18	
		w	2.56	.94	
Rpr PD	C	vg	4.42	.52	.84

		g	4.37	.55	
		w	4.31	.76	
Rpr PD	A	vg	2.60	1.03	.42
		g	2.92	1.15	
		w	2.83	.69	
MN Rpr	C	vg	4.52	.42	.42
		g	4.36	.55	
		w	4.37	.84	
MN Rpr	A	vg	2.33	1.00	.31
		g	2.62	1.02	
		w	2.74	.73	
Pas ID	C	vg	3.95	.91	.25
		g	3.76	.98	
		w	4.25	1.03	
Pas ID	A	vg	1.74	.82	.19
		g	1.92	.93	
		w	2.29	.85	

vg = very good, g = good, w = weak

10. Results by Experience in Teaching French

Error Type			m	s	p
Pre DI	C	y	4.46	.76	.88
		n	4.44	.57	
Pre DI	A	y	2.30	1.05	.28
		n	2.59	1.05	
Pre ID	C	y	4.49	.62	.52
		n	4.58	.54	
Pre ID	A	y	2.39	1.00	.13
		n	2.82	1.13	
Pre DP	C	y	4.80	.37	.36
		n	4.70	.44	
Pre DP	A	y	2.79	1.08	.58
		n	2.95	1.15	
Pre PD	C	y	4.64	.46	.85
		n	4.62	.49	
Pre PD	A	y	3.09	1.11	.97
		n	3.09	1.13	
Pre IDd	C	y	4.38	.84	.88
		n	4.36	.57	
Pre IDd	A	y	2.22	.87	.28
		n	2.51	1.06	
MN Pre	C	y	4.56	.56	.89
		n	4.54	.43	
MN Pre	A	y	2.56	.97	.38
		n	2.79	1.04	
Ppr DI	C	y	4.12	1.04	.45
		n	4.27	.72	
Ppr DI	A	y	2.24	.86	.36

		n	2.47	1.03	
Ppr ID	C	y	4.45	.58	.90
		n	4.52	.57	
Ppr ID	A	y	2.30	1.03	.27
		n	2.64	1.21	
Ppr PD	C	y	4.46	.70	.56
		n	4.54	.53	
Ppr PD	A	y	2.72	1.09	.70
		n	2.83	1.15	
Ppr IDd	C	y	4.30	.69	.99
		n	4.30	.65	
Ppr IDd	A	y	2.07	.86	.18
		n	2.42	1.06	
Ppr DIds	C	y	4.00	.59	.68
		n	3.92	.83	
Ppr DIds	A	y	1.87	.70	.57
		n	1.99	.91	
Ppr IIds	C	y	4.37	.71	.85
		n	4.34	.68	
Ppr IIds	A	y	1.99	.81	.23
		n	2.30	1.05	
Ppr IIdsd	C	y	4.57	.52	.65
		n	4.50	.61	
Ppr IIdsd	A	y	2.01	.77	.12
		n	2.42	1.08	
MN Ppr	C	y	4.34	.60	.97
		n	4.34	.54	
MN Ppr	A	y	2.17	.81	.28
		n	2.44	.99	
Rpr ID	C	y	4.41	.57	.76
		n	4.36	.67	
Rpr ID	A	y	2.43	.89	.69
		n	2.54	1.09	
Rpr DP	C	y	4.55	.59	.65
		n	4.47	.74	
Rpr DP	A	y	2.09	1.08	.37
		n	2.35	1.14	
Rpr PD	C	y	4.33	.61	.69
		n	4.39	.56	
Rpr PD	A	y	2.62	1.08	.38
		n	2.86	1.07	
MN Rpr	C	y	4.43	.48	.86
		n	4.40	.57	
MN Rpr	A	y	2.38	.87	.42
		n	2.58	1.01	
Pas ID	C	y	4.13	.81	.21
		n	3.82	1.00	
Pas ID	A	y	1.88	.77	.89
		n	1.91	.92	

y = yes, n = no

APPENDIX E
Means for Comprehensibility and Acceptability of Sentences According to Error Type

		C	A
Errors in Preposition Use			
PreDI		4.44	2.54
53.	Depuis qu'elle est à l'hôpital, elle prie à Dieu pour retrouver la santé.	4.77	2.94
44.	Les politiciens écoutent aux électeurs seulement en campagne électorale.	4.45	2.45
14.	De retour de voyage, il regarde à son compte VISA avec découragement.	4.60	2.72
30.	Même si on était en retard, un placier a montré à des sièges encore libres.	4.00	2.07
Control			
48.	Une pancarte indique le stationnement réservé aux visiteurs.	4.84	4.36
PreID		4.56	2.74
41.	Hier, j'ai été obligé d'assister cette réunion inutile.	4.66	2.84
35.	Lucien joue le hockey avec ses camarades deux fois par semaine.	4.83	2.96
13.	Les trafiquants de drogue n'ont pas pu échapper les chiens policiers.	4.21	2.42
27.	Les enfants désobéissent leurs parents beaucoup plus qu'avant.	4.62	2.80
Control			
36.	Je crois que cette décision rapide va nuire à votre réputation.	4.91	4.61
PreDP		4.72	2.92
50.	Jean a eu de la difficulté à payer pour ses frais de scolarité.	4.85	3.37
1.	Le comité espère pour un changement dans les conditions de travail.	4.64	2.71
29.	Paul attend pour une réponse à sa demande d'emploi depuis un mois.	4.75	2.96

23.	Comme d'habitude, Laurent doit chercher pour ses clés partout dans la maison.	4.70	2.75
Control			
51.	Les délégués ont demandé un remboursement de leurs dépenses.	4.80	4.27
PrePD		4.63	3.09
49.	Je doute le jugement de mon avocat parce qu'il répond arbitrairement.	4.44	2.95
52.	Les pays du Tiers-Monde manquent les moyens pour pouvoir se développer.	4.53	2.80
10.	Il trouve le temps de jouer le piano même s'il a deux emplois.	4.81	3.30
68.	Les ouvriers changent le sujet de conversation quand le contremaître arrive.	4.78	3.42
Control			
31.	Nous avons discuté de ce livre sans pouvoir comprendre le but de l'auteur.	4.72	4.22
PreIDd		4.36	2.46
2.	Le député a envoyé son délégué une lettre d'orientation.	3.89	2.22
47.	Un gardien peut ordonner les prisonniers de rester dans leur cellule.	4.60	2.63
15.	Le ministre a promis les citoyens de garder les services essentiels.	4.42	2.38
7.	Les spécialistes ont suggéré Ginette d'essayer un nouveau traitement.	4.62	2.75
Control			
60.	J'ai posé à l'agent une question pratiquement impossible à répondre.	4.76	3.95

Errors in Personal Pronoun Use		C	A
PprDI		4.24	2.43
63.	Les fidèles de sa paroisse, ce prêtre leur écoute avec compassion.	3.93	1.95
66.	- As-tu l'horaire des départs? - Oui, je vais lui montrer aux voyageurs.	4.25	2.27

57.	Voyant venir la crise, elle lui prie de ne pas agir trop vite.	4.56	3.26
73.	Ces enfants semblent malades. Regarde-leurs attentivement pour trouver des symptômes.	4.44	2.31
Control			
19.	Si tu veux le meilleur siège pour ce délégué, je peux l'indiquer à son guide.	4.31	3.54
PprID		4.52	2.58
67.	Ces clientes, je les ai répondues même si elles étaient très impatientes.	4.43	2.32
58.	- Ta belle-mère est là? - Oui, et je dois la plaire pour avoir la paix.	4.46	2.46
22.	Ces enfants sont très talentueux. C'est Josée qui les apprend à patiner.	4.60	2.58
17.	Ton assistant a des problèmes de gestion. Téléphone-le tout de suite.	4.66	2.97
Control			
65.	Quand son père prendra sa retraite, Luc lui succèdera comme directeur.	4.88	4.43
PprPD		4.53	2.81
59.	Du temps libre, je le manque pour aller au parc avec mes enfants.	4.32	2.34
55.	- Est-ce que c'est la guitare classique de Marc? - Oui, et il la joue très bien.	4.63	3.19
70.	Elles regardent régulièrement les téléromans et les discutent.	4.67	3.03
37.	L'honnêteté de notre candidat est sans reproche. Ne la doutez pas.	4.63	2.87
Control			
26.	La guerre bouleverse ce vétéran. On ne peut en parler avec lui.	4.61	3.33
PprIDd		4.30	2.35
9.	Le président, je le dis souvent d'être plus ouvert aux nouvelles idées.	3.60	2.11
28.	- Est-ce que Claire vous permet de partir? - On va la demander la permission.	4.50	2.35
18.	Les actrices ne sont pas prêtes. Il faut les permettre de changer la date de la pièce.	4.54	2.56

40.	Tes parents adorent le hockey. Donne-les un billet de saison.	4.56	2.41
Control			
32.	Le directeur leur défend d'aller au parc pendant la récréation.	4.89	4.64
PprDIds		3.93	1.97
74.	Ses conseillères, Madame Dubé écoute à elles avec attention.	4.05	1.79
16.	- Où sont les préposés aux bagages? - Regarde, l'agent montre à eux maintenant.	3.40	1.95
24.	Il discute avec son patron et prie à lui de changer d'idée.	4.17	2.10
39.	Cette danseuse a besoin de plus d'encouragement. Regarde à elle plus souvent.	4.18	2.10
PprIIds		4.34	2.24
3.	Tes soeurs, tu devrais répondre à elles pour éviter des chicanes de famille.	4.06	2.05
77.	- C'est la championne? - Non, mais il faut plaire à elle parce qu'elle a beaucoup d'influence.	4.40	2.20
62.	Les chats sont indépendants. On ne peut enseigner à eux contrairement aux chiens.	4.38	2.28
75.	Si tu veux une réponse du chef, téléphone à lui. C'est son projet.	4.67	2.55
Control			
6.	Charles aime toujours Lyne. Il ne renonce pas à elle même si elle a un amant.	4.62	3.82
PprIIdsd		4.51	2.35
46.	Ce vendeur, j'ai déjà dit à lui que je ne veux pas de ces produits.	4.33	2.12
33.	- Veux-tu les textes de l'oratrice? - J'ai déjà demandé à elle ses notes.	4.66	2.51
11.	Les joueurs ont perdu la partie. On doit permettre à eux de se reprendre.	4.53	2.44
25.	Nos bénévoles ont travaillé fort. Donnez à elles une récompense.	4.60	2.43

Errors in Relative Pronoun Use		C	A
RprID		4.37	2.52
56.	L'attaque que ces réfugiés ont résisté a été terrible.	4.23	2.37
5.	L'accident qu'ils ont survécu a touché toute la communauté.	4.20	2.44
38.	L'ennemi qu'il a pardonné est ensuite devenu un ami.	4.59	2.83
34.	La personne que Martine ressemble le plus n'est pas sa mère mais son grand-père.	4.61	2.60
Control			
71.	La réceptionniste à qui elle a succédé était très efficace.	4.62	3.92
RprDP		4.44	2.30
61.	Le meuble que j'ai payé pour n'a pas encore été livré.	4.56	2.56
54.	La bourse que Marc espérait pour a été donnée à un autre étudiant.	4.45	2.17
12.	L'autobus qu'ils attendent pour est en retard à cause de la neige.	4.42	2.19
69.	La solution qu'on cherchait pour depuis si longtemps était si simple.	4.52	2.38
Control			
8.	Les subventions que l'agence a demandées arriveront l'an prochain.	4.80	4.15
RprPD		4.38	2.81
21.	L'employé qu'il doute le plus est pourtant loyal et expérimenté.	4.35	2.89
42.	Les ressources que cette organisation manque représentent un obstacle majeur.	4.18	2.33
64.	Le violon que Carole joue appartenait à son arrière-grand-père.	4.62	3.11
4.	Le style de coiffure qu'elle change tous les jours ne surprend plus ses amis.	4.36	3.10
Control			
72.	L'organisation du congrès, dont le conseil a discuté, pose des problèmes.	4.33	3.60

Errors in Passive Use		C	A
PasID		3.88	1.91
45.	Le client a été expliqué comment utiliser l'appareil.	3.97	1.95
78.	Les spectateurs ont été dit de quitter la salle sans panique.	4.00	1.83
20.	Le gérant de la banque a été envoyé le dossier au complet.	3.73	2.03
76.	Sébastien a été prêté l'auto de son père jusqu'à demain.	3.92	1.93
Control			
43.	Les délinquants ont été pardonnés parce qu'ils regrettaient sincèrement leur acte.	4.80	4.19

APPENDIX F
Descriptive Statistics of Error Subtypes

Error Type		m	s
Pre DI	C	4.44	.61
	A	2.54	1.05
Pre ID	C	4.56	.55
	A	2.74	1.12
Pre DP	C	4.72	.43
	A	2.92	1.13
Pre PD	C	4.63	.48
	A	3.09	1.12
Pre IDd	C	4.36	.62
	A	2.46	1.03
MN Pre	C	4.54	.45
	A	2.75	1.03
Ppr DI	C	4.24	.79
	A	2.43	1.00
Ppr ID	C	4.52	.57
	A	2.58	1.18
Ppr PD	C	4.53	.56
	A	2.81	1.14
Ppr IDd	C	4.30	.65
	A	2.35	1.03
Ppr DIds	C	3.93	.79
	A	1.97	.87
Ppr IIds	C	4.34	.68
	A	2.24	1.01
Ppr IIdsd	C	4.51	.59
	A	2.35	1.04
MN Ppr	C	4.34	.55
	A	2.39	.96
Rpr ID	C	4.37	.65
	A	2.52	1.06
Rpr DP	C	4.49	.71
	A	2.30	1.13
Rpr PD	C	4.38	.56
	A	2.81	1.07
MN Rpr	C	4.41	.55
	A	2.55	.99
Pas ID	C	3.88	.97
	A	1.91	.89
Co Pre	C	4.80	.76
	A	4.28	.98
CoPpr	C	4.66	.77
	A	3.95	1.07
Co Rpr	C	4.58	.66
	A	3.89	1.17
Co Pas	C	4.85	.70
	A	4.33	1.48
MN Co	C	4.72	.67
	A	4.11	1.03